DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 042 708 24 SP 004 153

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TITLE	Diagnosing and Improving the Professional Climate of Your School. Vol. III.
INSTITUTION	National Training Labs. Inst. for Applied Behavioral Science, Washington, D.C.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C. Bureau of Research.
BUREAU NO	BR-8-0069
PUB DATE	70
GRANT	OEG-3-8-080069-43(010)
NOTE	192p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.75 HC-$9.70
DESCRIPTORS	Administrator Role, *Inservice Teacher Education, *Organizational Climate, *Problem Solving, School Improvement, Simulation, Tape Recordings, *Teacher Administrator Relationship, *Teacher Behavior, Teacher Responsibility, Teacher Role

ABSTRACT

This manual is intended to help staff members improve the professional climate of their school by identifying the symptoms, diagnosing some of the reasons behind them, and offering means of improvement. There are two main sections. The first begins with a description of the program, and some concepts and theories about the school as a social system. The remaining chapters deal with 1) how can you solve problems to improve your school; 2) who's responsible for what; 3) what are our typical ways of doing things; and 4) how do we use one another's resources? Twenty-six instruments are included for the implementation of the diagnosis, with discussion and analysis of the data. The second section deals with methods of improvement, and includes materials designed to provide the support needed for inservice training. The program consists of two separate parts: 1) the Simulation and Data Bank Packet, consisting of real-life data from COPED schools, and 2) the Problem Solving Packet, which guides faculty members in diagnosis, problem definition, and action design for their own situation. The material can be used with or without an outside consultant. The Simulation and Data Bank packet may involve the faculty in one or more brief sessions, while the Problem Solving Section could stimulate the development of a process that could extend for an entire year. Optional taped episodes are available for the simulation sections. (MBM)

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VOLUME III

Diagnosing and Improving the Professional Climate of Your School

Cooperative Project for Educational Development

Project Director
Dale G. Lake

Contract OEG. 3-8-080069-43(010)
Project No. 8-0069

SP004153

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Improving the Professional Climate of Your School

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DIAGNOSING
THE PROFESSIONAL CLIMATE
OF YOUR SCHOOL

by

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Charles Jung, Miriam Ritvo,

Richard Schmuck and Elmer Van Egmond

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the Roosevelt Sr. High School the students have demanded that a representative student committee be given the power to set policy with regard to student dress and appearance. The principal has responded by setting up a student-faculty committee with equal votes for each group, and has charged the committee with coming up with a policy.

Conservative members of the faculty are up in arms. They think the powers of the faculty are being seriously and improperly curtailed. The principal feels he has acted in good faith, in response to a problem which needed prompt attention, thereby avoiding a disruptive student strike. The faculty group is saying that the principal is undermining teacher authority. They are saying if decisions get made around here under threat of disruption, perhaps the teachers should strike.

If you were a teacher in this situation, wanting to improve the climate, what factors would you suggest should be examined? What further data would be needed?

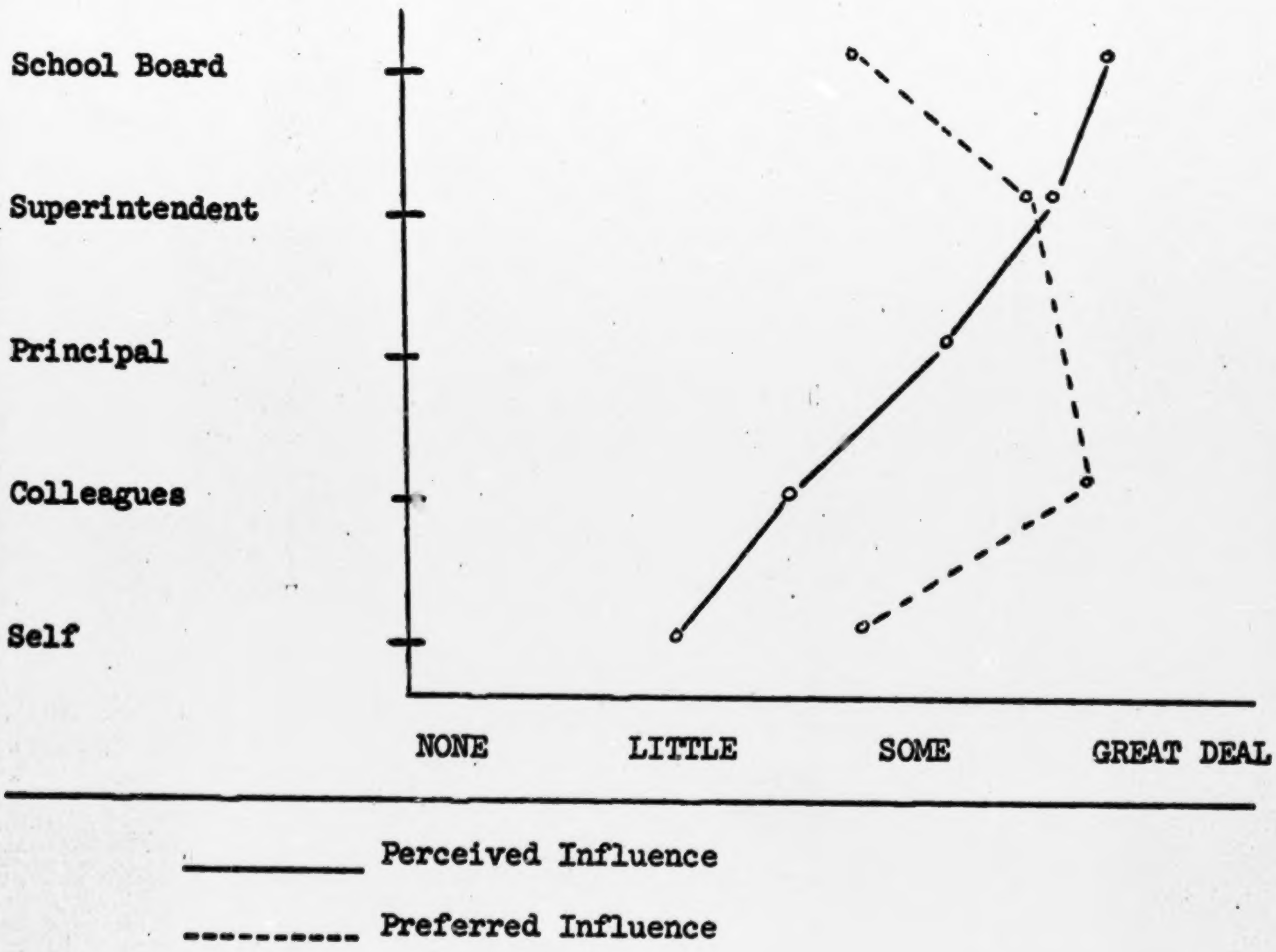
Carolyn Mayo, teacher in the Riverside Elementary School, read an article in one the professional journals today that reported some interesting research. Teachers had been asked to indicate how much influence on decisions about policy and programs in their school various individuals and groups have. Then they were asked how much did they think the various individuals and groups should have. The results looked like this:

Figure 1

TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AND PREFERENCES

OF VARIOUS PERSONS' INFLUENCE

ON SCHOOL POLICY



Furthermore, it was discovered that in schools where teachers were most innovative, they perceived themselves as having more influence on decisions than teachers in less innovative schools.

Carolyn wondered if this relationship would be found among the Riverside faculty. She wondered how she might approach the principal and the other teachers to find out.

> The Social Committee of Case Jr. High School has surveyed the faculty about their interest in having a party. The slips that came back made it clear that there were a variety of opinions! A cluster of teachers in the math department, who get together socially quite a bit among themselves, indicated they weren't interested in a school-wide party. Several other teachers who are usually somewhat isolated socially said they would not be able to make it (even though a date had not been indicated!) A number suggested that word be passed around that after the party there would be a gang at Weber's Supper Club where drinks could be obtained.

Some members of the committee interpreted the data in ways which others believed were incorrect. The committee became concerned that a little information might be misleading. How could they gather more information which would clarify things? Would they be digging into issues that were too sensitive? What would be an appropriate, constructive way to proceed?

The incidents described above illustrate at least three starting points for faculty members to involve themselves in a process of improving the professional climate within their school.

These are:

1. Members of a staff disagree about how to handle a pressing problem.

2. A staff member wants to use research findings but doesn't know how.

3. Some person or group within the staff is trying to improve staff working relationships. The question is, "Where do we go from here?"

Here are several other illustrations of such starting points.

Illustrations of problems facing a faculty which have implications for the professional climate.

--An energetic, liberal principal has encouraged his teachers to pursue their interest in developing a flexible, modular schedule. The staff has worked hard, seeking out schools to visit, descriptions of practice to read, brainstorming of various alternatives, and working out the details of an experimental plan for the following September. The principal was taken aback in June when he found on his desk a petition signed by about three-fourths of the faculty, requesting a thorough review of the role of the administrator, with a view toward relieving the teachers of such burdens as making out schedules, conducting faculty meetings, balancing faculty loads, and preparing descriptive materials.

--A faculty which has had a history of collaborative working relationships within the building, finds itself caught up in the current procedures for working through their teacher organization. The contract negotiation process, with its emphasis on confrontation and possible strike, the detailed spelling out of faculty responsibilities and commitments, the setting up of channels for the handling of grievances--all operate to set the administrator apart and in opposition to the teaching staff. Some teachers are uncomfortable with this trend, but are at a loss to know what to do.

--Many teachers in an elementary school would like to have more freedom and support to try out new procedures and curriculum materials. They are reluctant, however, to discuss their ideas with their principal, not because they anticipate his opposition, but just because they are unclear about whether it's the thing to do. They don't want to burden the already very budy guy by suggesting new projects or added expenses. They know he has good ideas about what the school might do to improve and don't want to interfer with his priorities. The principal, on the other hand, considers himself to be quite open, and receptive to teacher suggestions. He is unaware of their real feelings.

In many of these situations, there is no "right" or "wrong". Seen from different perspectives, the problem takes on different dimensions. Often the principal, the teachers, the parents, the students, all feel they have legitimate concerns, but operate on inaccurate assumptions about the concerns or values of other persons. This condition of "pluralistic ignorance" does not contribute to effective problem solving, or to good staff morale.

The question is, "How can we launch an honest inquiry into the problem? How can the 'obvious' assumptions being made about the other persons be checked out? What steps can be taken to get data to clarify the problem and to serve as a base for planning improvements?

Illustrations of findings from current research which have implications for improving the professional climate.

--The more influence staff members see themselves having, the more positively they regard staff meetings.

--In most schools, teachers go to the principal to get help on such matters as getting supplies, clarifying attendance procedures, and disciplining students. They go to fellow teachers for help on curriculum planning, classroom organization, and teaching methodology.

--Those teachers who have a sense that their own personal power and the power incumbent in their role is influential in school decision-making processes more often are involved in professional innovating and sharing.

--Teachers who see their principal as exerting substantial upward influence with the superintendent and minimal downward influence on the local staff are most likely to innovate.

--Most teachers would like to rearrange the system so that they would have greater decision-making power along with their colleagues and their local principals.

--Teachers who feel influential in the school decision-making processes are less alienated from school.

--When the principal and his staff perceive the school priorities in much the same way, they are more likely to be able to collaborate effectively.

--In those schools where the communication structure is more spread or diffuse, and where almost everyone is linked to someone, teachers innovate and share more than in schools with hierarchial or non-diffuse structure.

The pool of such findings from research is large. They do, of course, have to be "retrieved" or uncovered if they are to be of any help to local school staff. Much more important, however, is the question of relevance. "Is this true for us?" needs to be asked in every case. "Would it be possible for us to gather some data about our staff and our building to see if these findings hold for us?"

Illustrations of situations in which limited data have been obtained which may lead to next steps in improving the professional climate.

--A principal administered a "post meeting reaction" form (with no names required) after the last faculty meeting. The data show some impatience with the progress made, and there were several suggestions that there be fewer faculty meetings.

--The teacher who has been assigned responsibility for coordinating the procedures for ordering supplies and keeping the supply room in order interviewed each staff member. She found the lower elementary teachers very irritated with the upper grade teachers. In fact, they seemed quite hostile.

--During the Spring, a faculty committee worked on a plan for in-service staff development for next year. The idea of a sensitivity training laboratory experience for the entire staff one week before school opened in the Fall was discussed and approved. The committee was asked to make the arrangements. When the lab actually got under-way it was discovered that nearly half the teachers reported they had not realized they had committed themselves to such a lab. They didn't understand what it was, they resented having to take an entire week for it, and questioned the advisability of making the experience mandatory.

--The turnover rate at the Frost Elementary School was 47 per cent this year.

--Teachers are not attending the P.T.A. meetings. Neither are the parents!

Schools gather a good deal of information routinely and unobtrusively. But it isn't always looked at carefully, or used effectively. Often there are more questions raised by examining the data than there are solutions indicated. In fact, the value of much information gathered within the school may not be in indicating solutions but in indicating where to ask additional questions or to gather more detailed information.

Organizational Climate

School people are becoming increasingly aware that their professional work is done within an organizational and interpersonal climate. The climate is dependant upon such variable as:

- communication patterns
- norms about what's appropriate or how things should be done
- role relationships and role perceptions
- influence relationships
- rewards and sanctions

Productiveness and personal satisfaction indicate the quality of the climate. In a good climate, work gets done and people feel good about their relationships. If the climate is not good, there may be low productivity, job dissatisfaction, alienation, lack of creativity, complacency, conformity and frustration.

One of the problems facing staff members who want to improve the climate where they work is to move from identifying the symptoms of a poor climate to diagnosing some of the reasons behind the symptoms. This book is designed to help a staff move from identifying symptoms to diagnosing the reasons behind them. It asks and tries to answer this question: What kinds of questions might be asked that would lead to gathering the data necessary for diagnosis?

The following chapters pose some of these questions and offer instruments (paper and pencil devices used to measure something) which might be used to get data helpful in diagnosis. While focusing primarily on the instruments each chapter attempts to help the reader visualize how the data might be organized for sharing with the faculty, how implications might be drawn from it, and how these implications might be converted to several alternative courses of action.

The chapters deal with such questions as:

What's involved in the problem-solving process?	(Chapter III)
Who's responsible for what?	(Chapter IV)
What are our typical ways of doing things?	(Chapter V)
How do we use one another's resources?	(Chapter VI)

In Chapter II you will read some concepts and theory about the school as a social system. It is important to see the variables which determine the climate of a school within the larger context of a school viewed as a social system.

This book is designed to serve as a specialized resources to the principal, teacher, or staff committee engaged in improving the climate within the school. It assumes that a problem-solving process is under-way, that there has been involvement of staff in identifying and clarifying the need to work together on improvement of the climate. You must use the instruments described in the succeeding chapters with the collaboration of the people from whom data are gathered. They must know why they are supplying information, look forward to seeing what the data show, and to being involved in exploring possible implications for change.

Questions to get information relevant to the particular problem you are working on in your school.

Each instrument is presented and described in only one of Chapters III, IV, V, VI. However, a particular instrument may be useful in gathering data about several problems discussed in different chapters.

Or the most helpful findings may come from comparing data obtained from one instrument with those from another. The instruments are numbered, and cross-references utilized to avoid the need for re-presenting instruments.

Twenty-five instruments are presented:

Instrument No.	Title of Instrument	Chapter
1	Problem Analysis Program	III
2	Organizational Problem-Solving Scheme	III
3	The Force Field Technique for Diagnosing a Problem	III
4	Self-Conception of Own Role Performance	IV
5	Cognitive Structure of One's Role	IV
6-A	Self-Conception of One's Role (Teacher Form)	IV
6-B	Self-Conception of One's Own Role (Administrator Form)	IV
7	Influence	IV
8	Expectations for Others	IV
9	The Principal of This School	IV
10	Coordinators and Specialists	IV
11	Your Immediate Superior	IV
12	Estimates of How Others Perceive Their Roles	IV
13	Task and Maintenance Functions	IV
14	Functions Performed by Group Members--Observation Sheet	IV
15	Do's and Don'ts	V
16	My Own Position Regarding Do's and Don'ts	V
17	Our Typical Behavior	V

18	Meetings	V
19	Classroom Innovations	VI
20	Have You Tried It?	VI
21	What's New in Your Classroom?	VI
22	Perceptions of the Classroom Innovations of Others	VI
23	Educational Goals	VI
24	Personal Improvement Goals	VI
25	Innovations in the School System	VI
26	Perceptions of the School's Innovativeness	VI

CHAPTER II

THE SCHOOL AS A SYSTEM

The school system can be conceived as a set of interacting sub-systems all focused ultimately on the central objective--providing a good learning environment for the students. One way of looking at these sub-systems would be to arrange them as a series of concentric circles, each influencing most directly the sub-system immediately adjacent to it, and being influenced in turn by these sub-systems. The whole structure provides a "support system"--supporting the learning process.

Figure 3 details this support system. First focus is on the learner as a person. The second sub-system is the classroom peer group as a sub-culture of young learners. The third is composed of teachers, teacher aides and others who are the direct workers with children in creating learning experiences.

Other levels--the faculty peer group, the principal, elements of the larger school system--parent and lay citizen policy and advisory groups, as well as unorganized parents and citizens, and a wide variety of outside resource persons and change agents--all may be examined as sub-systems which have influence on and are being influenced by other parts of the support system.

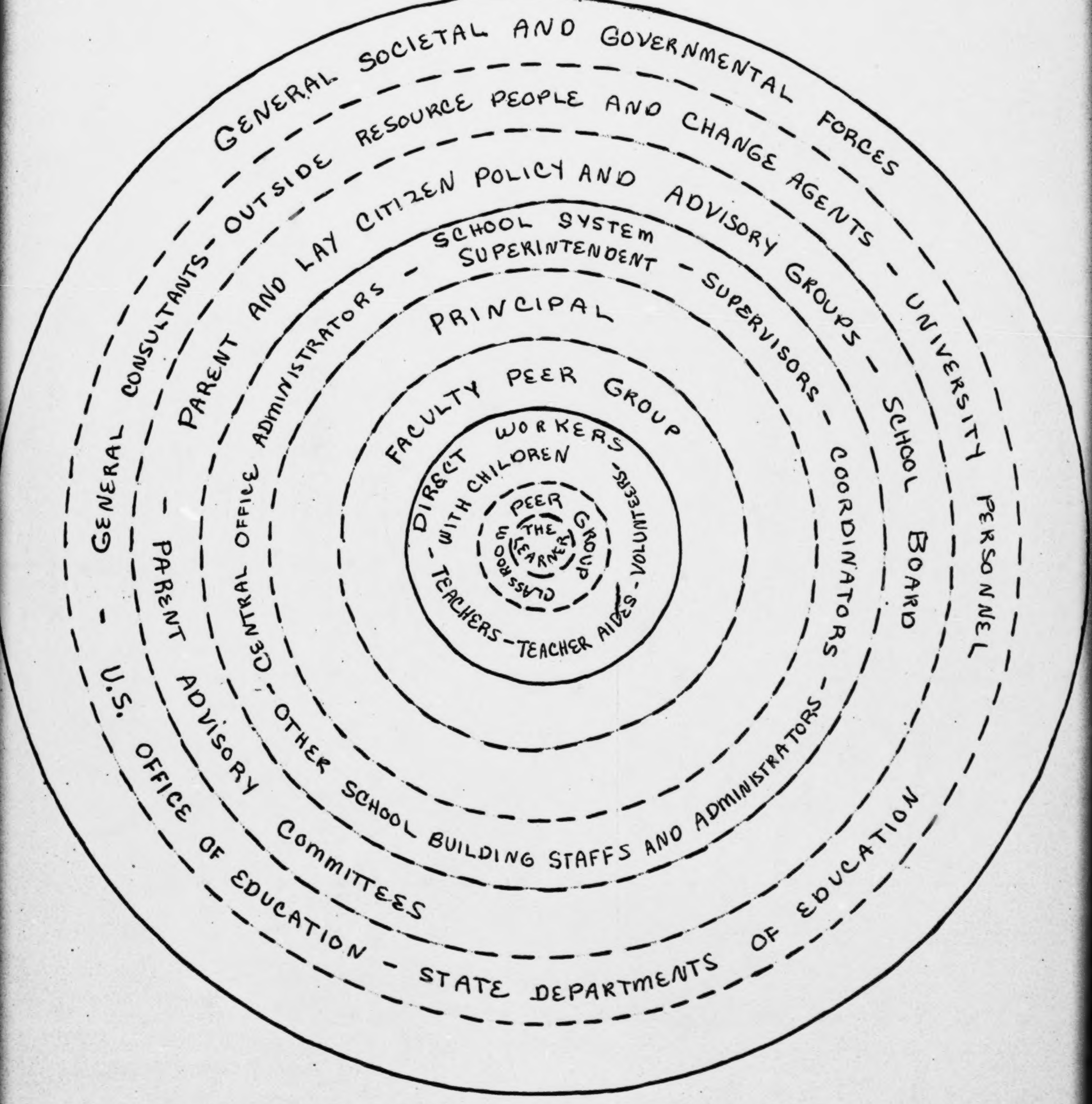
If the efforts of all who are engaged in providing a good learning environment for students are to be directed toward the support of classroom learning processes, it would be helpful to have a clear conceptual model of the process. Elements of such a model would include at least the following:

1. Learning through inquiry. Learning is an active, seeking process. It occurs in the "here and now" even though it sometimes deals with matters of the past or the future. The learner needs an opportunity to raise questions born of his own curiosity. He also needs help in forming his questions into productive inquiry projects.

2. Individualization in learning. Individual differences in children's rates of learning, readiness for specific learning experiences, and styles of learning range widely. On the one hand, these differences can add to the zest of learning for the entire class by providing a breadth of pupil resources and a variety of interests and learning goals. On the other hand,

FIGURE 3

THE SCHOOL SYSTEM AND ITS SUB-SYSTEMS


GENERAL SOCIETAL AND GOVERNMENTAL FORCES
GENERAL CONSULTANTS - OUTSIDE RESOURCE PEOPLE AND CHANGE AGENTS - UNIVERSITY PERSONNEL
- U.S. OFFICE OF EDUCATION - STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION
PARENT AND LAY CITIZEN POLICY AND ADVISORY GROUPS - SCHOOL BOARD
- PARENT ADVISORY COMMITTEES
CENTRAL OFFICE ADMINISTRATORS - SCHOOL SYSTEM SUPERINTENDENT - SUPERVISORS - COORDINATORS -
- OTHER SCHOOL BUILDING STAFFS AND ADMINISTRATORS
PRINCIPAL
FACULTY PEER GROUP
DIRECT WORKERS WITH CHILDREN
- TEACHERS - TEACHER AIDES - VOLUNTEERS -
CLASSROOM PEER GROUP
THE LEARNER

differences challenge the teacher to provide a structure for learning that permits learning activities to be planned and paced appropriately for each learner.

3. Pupil purposes and the development of the self concept. Within the model of good learning, pupils are encouraged to become self-directing. They are helped to become clear as to their learning goals. Emphasis is placed on the development of individual identity and on the formulation of a positive self-concept.

4. Pupil involvement in curriculum planning. The learner needs to have purpose in learning. While the skillful teacher by no means relinquishes responsibility for the basic design of the curriculum and for providing direction in planning specific learning experiences, he recognizes that learning is enhanced when the pupil understands and accepts the learning goals and is involved in planning how to reach them.

5. Use of a wide variety of resources. The effective classroom provides a great variety of learning resources. Different pupils can make best use of different resources. Materials emphasizing use of auditory, visual, and tactual senses can each contribute added depth to a learning experience. Community resources are increasingly available to school groups. First-hand data can often replace learning from secondary sources only.

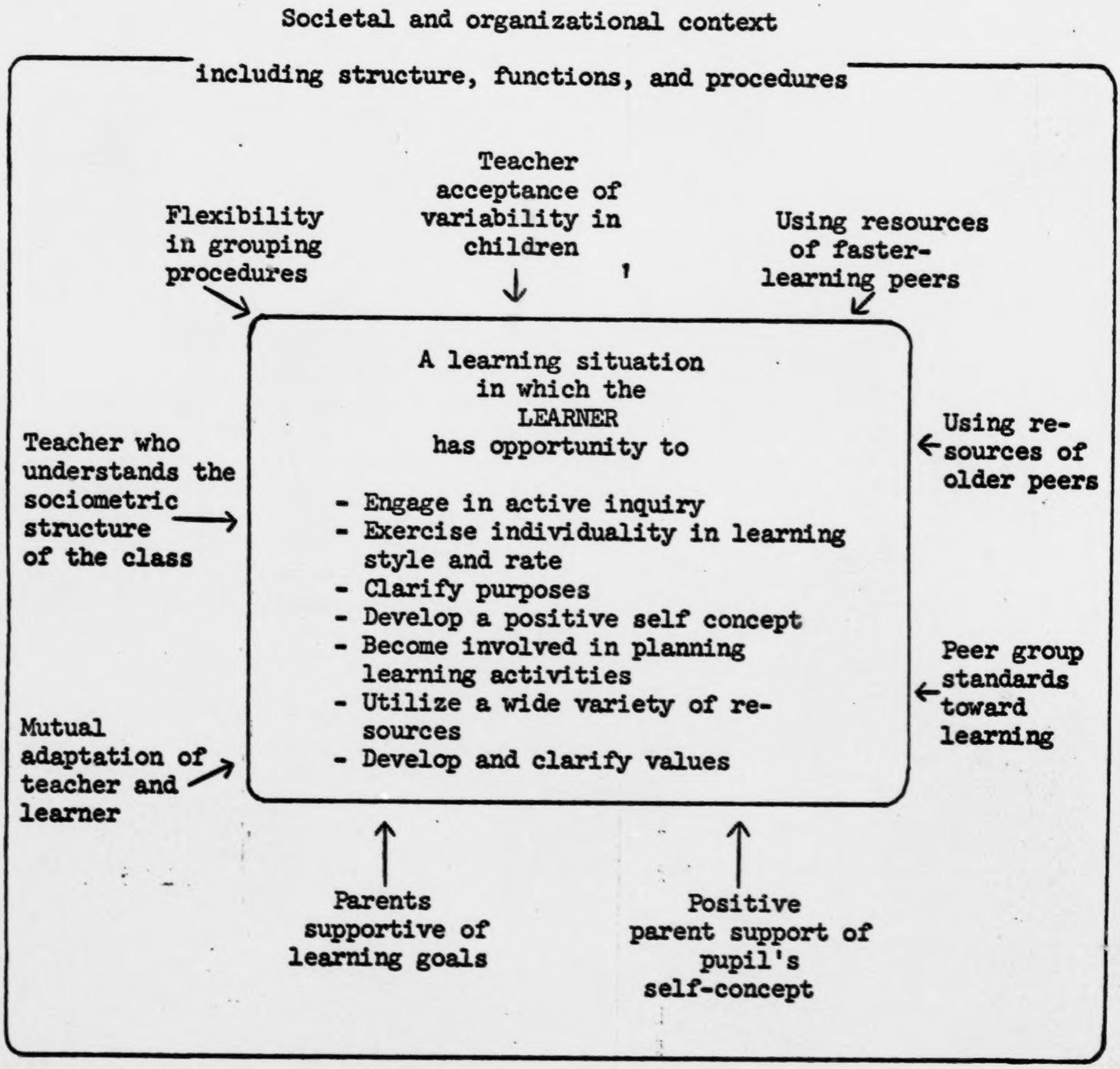
6. Clarification of values. Value inquiry, leading to development and clarification of the pupil's values and value system is an essential element in the learning activities of the classroom.

Figure 2 presents diagrammatically this model of the learning environment, together with a sample of the direct influences which may be brought to bear by some of the sub-systems as they interact with the learner to create good learning experiences.

What are some of the questions which might be examined at each of these different levels if one is interested in looking at the effectiveness of the system or in evaluating efforts to bring about change in the system? The following are some illustrative questions, matched with selected generalizations from recent research studies which have addressed the problem:

Questions	Leads from Research
At the level of the individual pupil as learner:	
Does it matter if the child feels his teacher likes him?	"Isolation from the teacher is greater when a pupil perceives himself as being disliked by his teacher than when he thinks he is liked by the teacher." (4)

FIGURE 2. A MODEL OF A GOOD LEARNING PROCESS


Societal and organizational context
including structure, functions, and procedures
Flexibility in grouping procedures
Teacher acceptance of variability in children
Using resources of faster-learning peers
A learning situation in which the LEARNER has opportunity to
- Engage in active inquiry
- Exercise individuality in learning style and rate
- Clarify purposes
- Develop a positive self concept
- Become involved in planning learning activities
- Utilize a wide variety of resources
- Develop and clarify values
Teacher who understands the sociometric structure of the class
Using resources of older peers
Peer group standards toward learning
Mutual adaptation of teacher and learner
Parents supportive of learning goals
Positive parent support of pupil's self-concept

Does it matter if the pupil agrees with the teacher as to what is appropriate classroom behavior?	"A lack of congruence between the way a pupil feels about classroom behaviors (norms) and how he thinks the teacher feels is accompanied by a low level of academic performance." (7)
Does a pupil's perception of his status with peers make any difference in his learning?	"Pupils who perceive themselves as holding low liking status among peers are lower utilizers of their abilities than pupils with higher perceived status." (4)
	"Perceived liking status in the peer group is related positively and significantly to both attitude toward self and attitude toward school." (4)
	"Pupils who have positive attitudes toward their class are higher utilizers of their intelligence than those who are less attracted to the class." (4)
Do a pupil's perceptions of his parents' attitudes toward school affect his involvement in learning activities?	"Indices for parental support of school, self-esteem, and attitudes towards school show that pupils who view their parents as supporting school have higher self-esteem and more positive attitudes toward school than pupils who view less parental support of school." (4)
Do the various important reference persons in a child's life have any influence on his school behavior?	"Perceived 'messages' from others about how to behave at school relate significantly to the socio-emotionally handicapped child's positiveness in relating with teachers and peers in the classroom." (5)

At the level of classroom peer group functioning:

Do actual relationships between children in the classroom influence learning?	"Classroom peer groups distinguished by more liking diffuseness exhibit more positive group affect than groups with more centrality." (4)
	"Pupils with actual low liking status are lower utilizers of their abilities than pupils with higher actual liking status." (4)

	"Associations exist between actual liking status and one's utilization of abilities, only for pupils with high potency of involvement in the peer group." (4)
	"The attitude toward self of pupils with high potency of involvement in the peer group is more positive as peer group structure increases in diffuseness." (4)
Do peer groups in the classroom establish norms which influence learning?	"In an average elementary school class, the majority of the pupils perceive that most of the other pupils are against too active cooperation with the teacher, are against being 'eager beavers' about study and learning. Nevertheless, the majority of the group, in confidence, will indicate a great desire to be more active, to become more involved. Yet there is collusion to maintain mutual ignorance." (6)

At the level of direct workers who create learning experiences:

Does teacher behavior directly influence the pupil's learning experience?	"The more a teacher likes a particular pupil, the less isolated he is from the teacher." (4)
	"A high level of isolation from the teacher is accompanied by a high level of dissatisfaction with the teacher." (4)
	"Pupils who are isolated from the teacher have more negative attitudes toward school than those who are not isolated from the teacher." (4)
	"Satisfaction with the teacher is significantly related to the utilization of intelligence for girls at every social status level." (4)
	"For both sexes combined, satisfaction with the teacher and utilization are associated when the effects of social class, parental support and peer status are held constant." (4)

How directive should the teacher be in creating learning experiences for children?	"The teaching methods we have called indirect produce more achievement . . . Direct influence decreases learning except when goals have initially been clarified and made acceptable by use of indirect influence." (7)

At the level of those who influence the direct workers:

What actions of the principal facilitate or inhibit the innovativeness of teachers?	"There is a high and significant correlation between the amount of staff inventiveness, and the staff's perception of the principal's support for innovative teaching." (1)

At the level of influencers of the school system as an organization:

What happens to innovations when they are perceived by the teacher to be imposed by central administration, or from outside?	"If teachers believe they have influence, they are likely to believe it is worthwhile sharing information with their colleagues." (2) "Teachers who are seen by their colleagues as influential, competent, and enthusiastic about teaching, innovate and share more than teachers who are not perceived in this way." (2)

The parts of this complex, support system do relate to each other, and do, ultimately, have an effect on the quality of the learning opportunity provided to the children and young people in the school.

This pamphlet focuses on the sub-systems of "principal," "faculty-peer group," and "direct workers with children," because these sub-systems have the most effect on the professional climate of a school building. Needless to say, parents and the P.T.A., supervisors and central office staff, and the school board, also effect the professional climate of the local school building.

CHAPTER III

PROBLEM SOLVING TO IMPROVE YOUR SCHOOL

Suppose that a fellow teacher says to you, "There is much we need to accomplish this year as a faculty, but our weekly faculty meetings don't seem very productive. I think we should stop having them. Don't you agree?"

You would need to ask many questions of this teacher to respond helpfully. The situation may be compared to that of a patient who comes to a doctor and says, "I have a terrible headache. Do you think I should undergo brain surgery?" The doctor would insist upon a careful diagnostic examination before even considering possible courses of action to solve the problem.

In both of these situations, there is danger of jumping from awareness of a need to considering a plan of action and thereby omitting important steps in the problem-solving process.

Major Phases of Problem Solving

A problem-solving process can best be thought of as a continuously recurring series of steps to bring about desired changes. The following major phases should be included:

1. Identifying the Problem. Problems having to do with the professional climate of the school can usually be categorized under two types: interpersonal and organizational. Interpersonal problems occur between several people and often involve a complex set of feelings and relationships. Organizational issues, on the other hand, occur between roles and can generally be approached by examining the expectations that persons hold for how certain organizational procedures should be carried out.

One needs to ask, "What kind of a problem is it? Who is causing it? and Who is affected by it?" Interpersonal problems may keep staff members from effectively collaborating and working together. Some examples of such interpersonal problems are: a lack of clear communication between staff members which may result in a perpetual cycle of misreading and mistrust; a lack of openness between staff members which is revealed by a preponderance of hidden agendas and sub-groups that talk about people who aren't present; or a lack of skill in communicating which may keep members from communicating their intentions successfully. Interpersonal problems, in brief, involve the lack of a positive bond between people which helps them approach each other to accomplish the tasks that need to be done.

Organizational problems, especially when they are of significant magnitude, may also keep the school from achieving its objectives. Some examples are: a lack of participation and involvement in staff, committee, and departmental meetings; a failure of staff members to capitalize on the skills and abilities of one another; a lack of role clarity; a lack of cohesiveness or a "we" feeling within the staff; or, a lack of supportive norms, especially an absence of such shared expectations as authenticity and openness.

2. Diagnosing the Problem Situation. Once the problem has been clearly stated in terms of goals to be attained in order to resolve it, one should identify the forces operating in the situation which tend to push - toward a particular goal. The strength of particular forces may be assessed and their relation to other forces determined. As the true forces are identified, it often becomes clear that the goals which were first thought to represent a solution are incorrect or inadequate ones. New goals must be stated and new forces identified repeatedly as one works toward resolution of the problem. Diagnosis is a continuous part of problem solving.

3. Considering Action Alternatives. As diagnositc work progresses, a range of action alternatives should emerge. Each should be considered in relation to knowledge of the forces operating in the problem situation. What are the particular forces operating for and against someone taking effective action steps? If one or some combination of the alternatives is tried, what will happen to the forces pushing toward or away from a particular goal? How will the forces operate to influence the success or failures of trying a particular action alternative?

4. Trying Out an Action Plan. At some point, one or a combination of the action alternatives will be attempted. As the attempt is made, information will be needed to assess whether there is movement toward the goals. This would include discovering which forces are changing and account for movement, or lack of it. Such assessment provides both an evaluation of progress and a new diagnositc picture. It clarifies the next action steps which need to be taken. It may also identify additional skills which may be needed in order to move ahead. This latter type of information should be the basis of inservice training closely related to any action program.

5. Diffusion and Adaptation. Information gained from action experience in dealing with a problem should be shared with others who face similar problems. Information to be diffused should include: a clear, specific statement of the problem; the forces involved in the problem situation; a description of action taken to change the forces; results of action including failures as well as successes; special problems that were encountered; and special skills that were needed to carry out particular actions. These kinds of information make it possible for persons in another setting to adapt elements to diagnose their problem situations.

Supporting the Problem-Solving Process

Two instruments have proven to be helpful in guiding staff members through problem-solving sequences. The first, entitled Problem Analysis Program is aimed at increasing one's understanding of interpersonal problems. It can be carried out in collaboration with several others. The second, entitled Organizational Problem Solving Scheme, has been most widely used by staffs, committees, and departmental groups to solve problems of an organizational nature.

INSTRUMENT # 1:

PROBLEM ANALYSIS PROGRAM (P.A.P.)

This program has twenty steps and is generally prepared so that each step is on a different sheet of paper. For purposes of presentation here, however, the twenty steps will be shown, one right after the other.

This program has been adapted by members of the NTL network with permission from a copyrighted program by Saul Eisen, 1966. The program, in many ways, is based on the work of Carl Rogers.

Step 1. How the Problem Analysis Program (P.A.P.) Works

Scientific research and practical experience have shown that people who successfully resolve problems typically go through certain general stages of thinking. At each stage they acquire a new, more useful way of looking at their problem, which leads them to a better understanding of it and helps to uncover new approaches to resolving it, involving changes in their awareness, feelings, and behavior.

Step 2. This, then, is a systematic procedure for using your own feelings and thinking as resources to understand and resolve a problem you now have with another person, group, or organization. The more important the problem is to you, the more meaningful will be the learning you get from this procedure. Your following this procedure is probably indicative of a real decision by you to tackle the problem.

The chances of arriving at a meaningful and lasting solution depend on your making this kind of decision now.

Step 3. How You Can Use This Program

The P.A.P. presents you with a series of questions about the way you think about your problem. As you answer these questions you will be following the thinking process which results in a better way of looking at your problem. You will be going through the stages of effective problem solving.

Step 4. In the following steps, you will be asked to write down a simple statement of the problem. This first statement will probably not be very clear or concise. In fact, part of the difficulty in solving a problem is frequently that it is hard to pin down just what the problem is. This program will help you to state your problem more clearly.

Step 5. Take some time now to write down this first statement of the problem as it looks to you now. You need not worry about coherence, style, or clarity. Try instead to write "off the top of your head."

As I see the problem, it is essentially that. . . . .

Step 6. Now that you've written down how the problem looks at this point, it would be useful to see what stage of problem solving this statement represents.

If you speak about the problem as something which is bad in general, but has no bearing on you personally, you're thinking in Stage #1. If you do talk about how it bears on you, you're thinking in Stage #2.

Example

Stage #1	Stage #2
My boss loses his temper too easily.	My boss loses his temper at me too easily.

Step 7. Looking at the words you have actually written in connection with Step 5, determine whether your statement is Stage #1, or Stage #2.

For the most part, my statement is now in
Stage #______.

If it is in Stage #1, go on to the next Step.

If it is in Stage #2, scan the next step, answer if you wish, and then go on to Step 9.

Step 8. If your statement was in Stage #1, it did not describe the problem as *your* problem. You can progress to Stage #2 by restating the problem in terms of how you are involved in it. You can probably do this by answering the question, "How is this problem of concern to *me*?" or "How am *I* concerned with it?"

If I were to restate the problem, this time emphasizing how it is of concern to *me*, I would say that . .

Step 9. Now look again at the problem as you describe it now. If you talk about how it is of concern to you, but *not* about how you *feel* and *react* in the problem situation, you're thinking in Stage #2. But if you *also* talk about your feelings and reactions, you're thinking in Stage #3.

Example

Stage #2	Stage #3
My boss gets angry at me too easily.	My boss gets angry at me too easily. This usually *gets me rattled* so I can't work well, and gets me *annoyed* at him for having such a short fuse.

Step 10. For the most part, my statement is now in Stage # _____.

If it is in Stage #2, turn to the next Step. If it is in Stage #3, scan the next Step, answer if it you wish, and then go on to Step 12.

Step 11. You can progress to Stage #3 by writing about your problem again, this time emphasizing how you feel and react in the problem situation.

Focusing now on my feelings and reactions, I would say that . . .

Step 12. Stage #4, which is one of the key stages in the understanding and resolution of a problem, is the recognition by the individual of his "contribution"--the ways in which his own behavior adds to the problem situation. If your statement includes recognition of how you help to create or continue your problem, then you are at Stage #4.

Example

Stage #3	Stage #4
My boss gets angry at me too easily. This usually gets me rattled so I can't work well, and gets me annoyed at him for having such a short fuse.	My boss gets angry at me too easily. This usually gets me so rattled I can't work well and gets me annoyed at him for having such a short fuse. My feelings about his anger keep me on edge so that I am more likely to make mistakes that get him angry. Also he doesn't know the effect his anger has on me because I've never really told him.

Step 13. Looking at your statement of the problem up to now, ask yourself whether you have explored sufficiently *your own contribution* to the problem in terms of the things you do (or neglect to do) which might be adding to the problem. If you've already done this, scan Step 14, answer it if you wish, and then go on to Step 15.

Step 14. Restate your problem to reflect Stage #4.

> The problem as I see it now, including recognition of what I am doing or neglecting to do, is as follows:

Step 15. When you have gone through Stages 1 to 4 in your thinking about your problem, you may find that you now have a clearer, more useful way of looking at it. You may also find that some of your feelings about the situation have changed or are beginning to change. This could mean that negative, uncomfortable feelings become less intense or less upsetting.

Step 16. As a result of this analytical process, the following changes in *my awareness* and *my feelings* have taken (or are taking) place:

Step 17. Another result of going through Stages #1 to #4 is that you may begin to see specific changes in your behavior which might be appropriate. (This could well mean doing something which you've never tried before.) Think for a few minutes about *specific* changes in *your behavior* which might be appropriate for your problem. Then go on to the next Step and write about these changes, if any.

Step 18. In relation to the problem as I've described it and any changes in awareness and feelings which I'm experiencing, the following specific changes in my behavior would be appropriate:

Step 19. At this point, you need an opportunity to try out the changes in behavior which you have described in Step 17. In preparation for this, review and picture in your imagination the changes in your behavior which you have decided upon. Now think about how willing you are to actually try out these changes. (How would you rate your willingness to change on a scale of 1 through 9, with 9 being "very willing?")

Remember that the solution to your problem depends, at least in part, upon your behavior, your feelings, your attitudes, and your willingness to change.

Step 20. This concludes this problem-solving cycle. If the problem situation does not seem completely resolved, (or if you are now facing other, similar problems), you may go through the problem-solving cycle again in an attempt to more fully describe your problem and your alternatives.

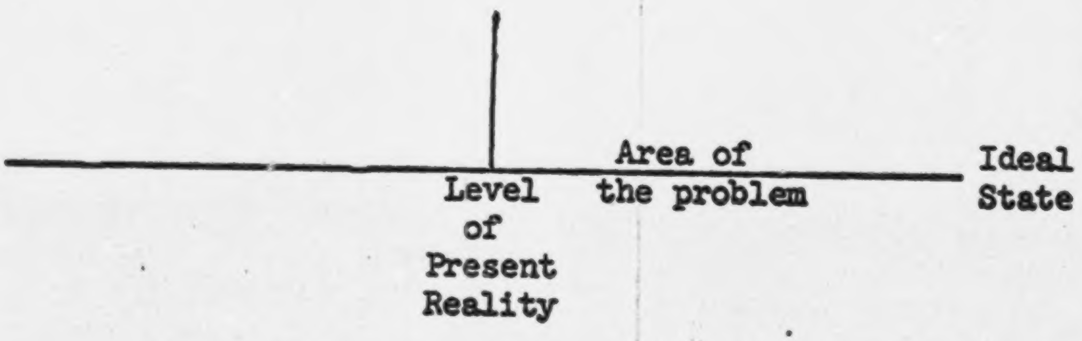
You may now be facing a different kind of problem; for example, you may be striving to overcome barriers to accomplishing things you or your organization want to accomplish. If so, this problem-solving cycle can also be used effectively by you to gain a better way of looking at what you want to accomplish and the barriers to your doing so. This P.A.P. can be used for any problem of challenge of concern to you that you can relate to yourself.

INSTRUMENT #2

ORGANIZATIONAL PROBLEM-SOLVING SCHEME

Each stage of this process requires a great deal of time. The scheme is as follows:

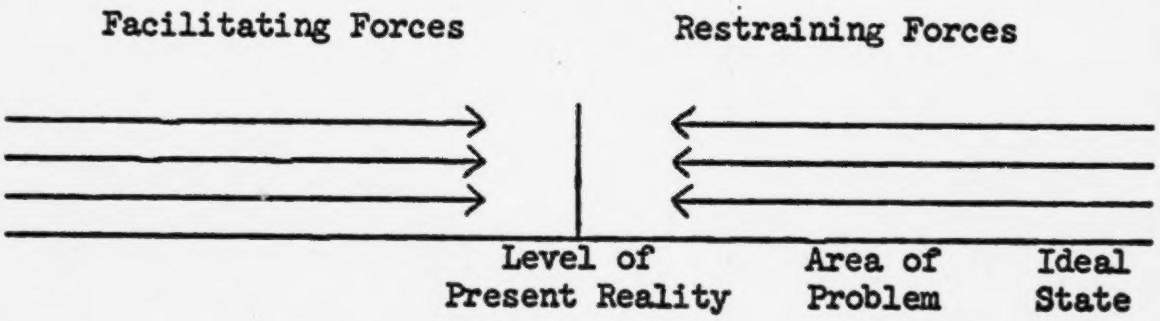
Stage 1: Problem Identification. What is the problem? A problem is defined as falling short of an ideal goal. It can be visualized by the following diagram:



During Stage 1, each staff member should define his problem concretely and behaviorally, making provisions within his statement for his own involvement as well as his feelings about the problem.

Stage 2: Problem Analysis. For the next step, a field-of-forces analysis is prepared as illustrated below:

Force Field Analysis



Thinking of the present state of the problem as a balance between opposing forces, try to list all the forces on one side of the issue. Now list all forces on the other side, (e.g., In the present state of world affairs, suppose that daily events are the result of U. S. forces and Chinese forces: these are the two "sides".)

Go back and think about how important each force seems to you. If it seems very important, put a "5" next to it in the left hand margin. If it seems not very important, put a "1" next to it in the left hand margin. Rate each of the forces on a scale of "1" to "5", depending on how important the force being described appears to you.

Stage 3. Brainstorming. The third step in the problem-solving sequence is to "brainstorm" ways of decreasing the strength of the restraining forces. Emphasis is put on reducing forces because this emphasis is more likely to support effective change. Brainstorming involves thinking up many different ideas, sometimes wild ideas, without evaluation. After the brainstorming is concluded, a judgment should be made as to which ideas are feasible and which ones should be forgotten about for the present. Both brainstorming and force-field analysis encourage a norm of seeking a variety of solutions before making a decision.

Stage 4: Designing Concrete Plans of Action. During the fourth stage, attempts are made to plan for actions that will reduce the restraining forces. The designs should include: (1) clear statements of goals, (2) concrete procedures for achieving the goals, and (3) procedures for getting feedback to see if goals are being reached.

Stage 5: Trying Out the Plan Through a Simulated Activity. The best way of trying to implement a plan ultimately is to try it out by role-playing or simulation. Feedback can be given by other members of the staff; the plan can be altered for improvement; and, finally, the plan is ready to be tried out.

Diagnosis

Continuous attention to diagnosis is the cornerstone of objective problem solving. Without complete, accurate diagnosis, problems tend to multiply. Fads are accepted which don't really fit the local situations where they are applied. Potentially good solutions are abandoned without realizing the slight changes which were needed to make them work. Decisions are made on the basis of peoples' ability to argue or on the status they have rather than on the facts of the situation. Helpful innovations are rediscovered and die repeatedly without being effectively shared because people don't know what to tell or what to ask about how they worked.

There are probably several reasons why good diagnostic work is not done very actively by educators. One is that it is comparatively difficult to identify clear goals in working together to help youth grow. Education is an extremely complex business. An engineer can make accurate estimates of the kinds and qualities of materials he needs to build a power dam to produce a given amount of electricity in a certain setting. It is vastly more complicated for a faculty to estimate the kinds of experience and organizational mechanisms that will increase support for each other's innovativeness in teaching.

It is often difficult to get accurate information about school building phenomena even when goals can be stated clearly. The medical doctor listens with his stethescope, views with his x-ray machine, and analyzes with his chemical and electronic equipment. Educators are only beginning to be provided by the social scientist with tools to gather the sorts of diagnostic data critical to their efforts. These include ways to find out about feelings, values and attitudes, ways to learn of the perceptions people have of each other and the norms which influence the behavior of the individuals in groups.

Another barrier to becoming involved in diagnostic work may be the individual's lack of awareness of how important and satisfying such effort can be. In the complex business of helping others learn, good diagnostic work gives one the added power of knowing why things did or didn't work. When you can identify the "why", even failures can provide new insights to help plan next steps.

The ways our organization operates and the ways we think of our roles can also provide barriers to becoming involved in good diagnostic work. Spending time gathering information, thinking about it, and planning on the basis of it may need greater support in our setting in order to become a part of the educator's role. Many schools tend now to give little support or reward for time which is not spent in working directly with youth, or handling administrative details.

Ways of Gathering Data

Good diagnostic work depends on gathering valid, reliable data. There are many ways of gathering data. In one sense, we are gathering data all the time by being aware of what is happening around us. Most of the things we are aware of are not really news to us. They are things that we fully expected. Diagnostic work such as analyzing forces for and against movement toward a particular goal can help us pick out kinds of data that we want to check on more carefully.

Some ways of collecting data will be suggested below. Before you select one of these for any particular occasion, there are some important questions to consider. What will be the respondents' reaction to being asked this question in this way? How will I know if this question has the same meaning to the respondents that it has to me? Will the respondents feel free to give their own reactions, or will they be apt to give answers that they think somebody wants to hear? Is this question clear enough so that a respondent will answer it the same way each time it is asked, barring some major change in the situation? These are the kinds of questions that social scientists are concerned about when they gather data. You will be increasing your own data gathering skills each time you work through these questions as part of a data gathering effort. Here are some ways to gather data:

Written response

1. Open-ended answers: anything from finishing a sentence to writing an essay.

2. Multiple choice: forced choice where you must pick only one answer, or free choice where you select as many answers as are correct for you.

3. Preferred choice: a form of forced choice where you select the things you like best or least as compared with other things. (*E.g.*, Would you rather supervise lunch period or the playground?)

4. Scaled response: *E.g.*, On a five-point scale where "1" is "not at all" and "5" is "very much", check how satisfied you are with our procedure for reviewing new text books.

Interview

It may be open and free flowing or highly structured with the questions closely adhered to. Interviews might be arranged in a variety of styles and situations:

1. It may be held with the total group where you raise the questions to determine the kinds of responses given in a total group situation.
2. It may be held in a small group where you bring together people who have special relevance.
3. It may be held with key informants where you gather data from individuals whom you believe can give accurate views as to what others would say.
4. You may hold individual interviews where you find out how each answers the questions when by himself.

Observation

Again, the approach may be open-ended where you keep your eyes and ears open for anything that might be important, or, highly structured such as where you count the number of questions of a certain type asked at a meeting. Observational data may be gathered by a person selected for this purpose, or by you yourself. If you do it, you may be an active participant in the interaction but recording when you are not so actively involved, or you might tape record the event and collect the data later as you listen to the tape.

Unobtrusive measures

Sometimes data exist or can be gathered in ways that do not interfere with normal routine. We call these unobtrusive measures. For example, you might get some clues about faculty morale by noting the average daily consumption of coffee in the lounge, by checking the rate of staff absenteeism, and by looking at records of annual staff turnover and reasons given for transfer requests. You might get some indications of parent attitudes towards the school by keeping a log of the nature of parent contacts with the school over a period of time.

Tools for Gathering Data

The remaining chapters present examples of tools (instruments) for gathering of data about school building environments. These tools have been carefully developed in collaboration with social scientists and with members of school faculties. They are presented here as illustrations. There may be times when you will want to use tools from this book in the form in which they are presented. At other times you may use just those parts of an instrument that speak to a particular data gathering need. On still other occasions, the tools here may give you ideas of how to create a new tool to fit a specific need. Our hope is that you will find in this book a variety of ideas that will assist you in gathering data about your school building environment that will be useful in diagnosing existing problems and in measuring change as you work together in trying to improve the environment.

The force field analysis for diagnosing a problem was included as part of the "Organizational Problem-Solving Scheme" (Instrument #2). It is such a useful tool, however, that it is presented here in it's own right with more detailed instructions for its use. It can help you to identify your data gathering needs.

INSTRUMENT #3

THE FORCE FIELD TECHNIQUE FOR DIAGNOSING A PROBLEM

To use this tool, one must first state a problem in terms of a clear goal. For example, Mrs. Andrews is a teacher who states her problem as follows:

> In our school, the seventh and eighth grades are scheduled on a "block plan." Each section of approximately 30 students receives all of its instruction in the basic academic courses from a team of teachers. One teaches mathematics and science for two hours. Then the class moves to another room, usually next door, where the partner teaches English and social studies for two hours. Thus, each team of teachers shares two sections totaling 60 students. My improvement goal is to build better communication between teacher partners regarding students, student needs, curriculum, student assignments and student control.

Mrs. Andrews is now ready to write out her first force field. She takes a blank sheet of paper and writes the nature of the problem at the top. She then draws a horizontal line across the top. On the left side of the line she writes the words, "Forces for better communication." On the right side of the line she writes the words, "Forces against better communication." In the right-hand margin of the paper she writes the goal which she has specified for her problem, "Better communication between teacher partners." In the left-hand margin she writes the opposite of her goal, "Poorer communication between teacher partners."

Now, she draws a vertical line down the middle of the page. This line represents the way things are at the moment with regard to communication between teacher partners on the specified topics. Things are the way they are at the moment because there is a set of forces pushing from the left toward better communication, and an equal set of forces pushing from the right against better communication. If the forces on the left become stronger while those on the right stay the same or get weaker, then the line which represents the current situation will move toward the right--toward better communication. Mrs. Andrews now writes down what she believes to be the important forces operating in this situation. Figure 3 shows Mrs. Andrews' first effort at writing out her force field.

Figure 3

MRS. ANDREWS' FIRST FORCE FIELD

"My improvement goal is to build better communication between teacher partners regarding students, student needs, curriculum, student assignments and student control."

	Forces for better communication →		← Forces against better communication	
Opposite of goal: Poorer communication between teacher partners	Teacher partners share same students →	CURRENT SITUATION	Teachers are short of time ←	Goal: Better communication between teacher partners
	Present physical arrangements facilitate encounter between teacher partners →		Scheduling of classes makes it hard for partners to meet ←	
	Consistent handling of students makes life easier for all →		We haven't worked out efficient ways to share information ←	
			Possible conflicts in interests ←	
			General organization is now focused on departments ←	

Mrs. Andrews wasn't very satisfied with her first effort to describe her force field. She guessed that there must be more forces than the ones she had thought of. She began to discuss the improvement goal she had identified informally with other teachers. Each one she talked with shared her concern. She found there was a high level of motivation to seek ways to better communication between pairs. Several teachers noted that at formal meeting times, "departmental issues seem to take up most of the available time. We usually meet as one large group, and frequently the majority has to sit through the hashing out of issues that concern only a few."

Mrs. Andrews believed she had learned two things from these discussions. One was that an additional "force for better communication" was an awareness among others of this need and desire to do something about it. Another was that the way formal meeting times were arranged was seen as partially wasteful. Norms of always meeting as one large group and focusing on departmental issues seemed a force against the possibility of working on Mrs. Andrews' improvement goal. In Figure 4 we see how Mrs. Andrews added these forces to her force field.

Mrs. Andrews now did three additional things with her force field. First she ranked the forces in terms of how important she thought they were in trying to change the situation. She put a number "1" by that force which she believed would yield most movement toward the goal if it could be changed. She put a "2" by the forces that she thought would result in the second greatest amount of movement if changed, and so forth. Second, she rated each force in terms of how easy (or hard) she thought it would be for her to bring about some change in it. She gave each force a rating of "hard", "medium" or "easy". Third, she again rated each force, this time in terms of how clear she was about whether it really was a force. Was she just imagining it was a force, or just how was it really operating? She labeled each force as "clear", "partly clear", or "unclear". Figure 5 presents Mrs. Andrews' force field at this point.

Now Mrs. Andrews had a picture of what she thought was going on in her problem situation. The most important thing that stood out to her was that she was not very clear about some of the forces which she guessed to be important. This helped her to focus on the points where she needed to do some more careful data gathering. She found one ready-made tool for gathering the kind of data she now knew she needed. She developed some interview questions for another. The force about teachers being short of time seemed very important, but rather vaguely stated. She found she was able to make it much clearer by writing out a force field on this force! She worked on identifying the forces for and against teacher pairs finding more time to communicate.

Figure 4

MRS. ANDREWS' SECOND FORCE FIELD

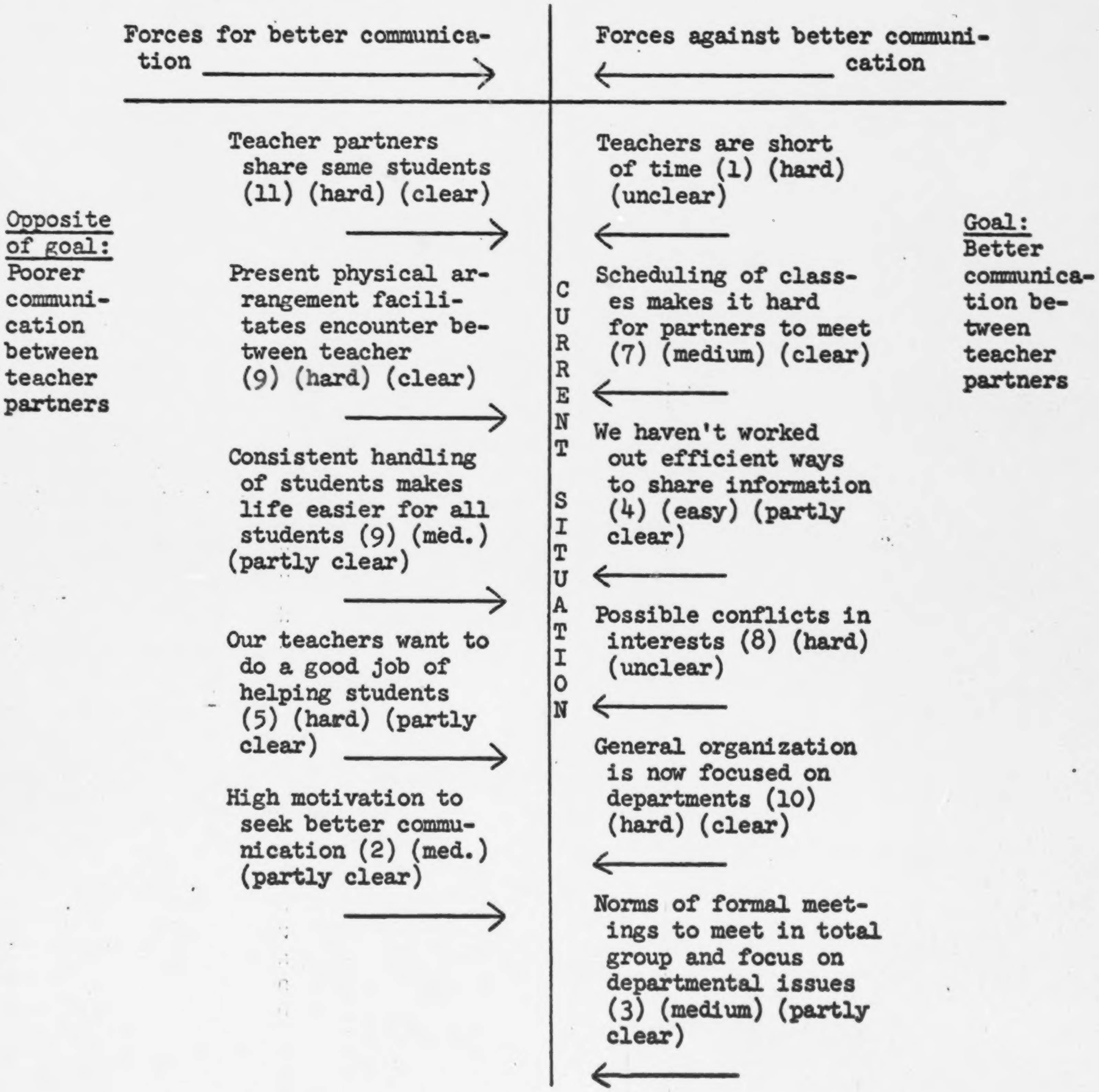
"My improvement goal is to build better communication between teacher partners regarding students, student needs, curriculum, student assignments and student control."

	Forces for better communication →		← Forces against better communication	
Opposite of goal: Poorer communication between teacher partners	Teacher partners share same students →	CURRENT SITUATION	← Teachers are short of time	Goal: Better communication between teacher partners
	Present physical arrangement facilitates encounter between teacher partners →		← Scheduling of classes makes it hard for partners to meet.	
	Consistent handling of students makes life easier for all →		← We haven't worked out efficient ways to share information	
	Our teachers want to do a good job of helping students →		← Possible conflicts in interests	
	High motivation to seek better communication →		← General organization is now focused on departments	
			← Norms of formal meetings to meet in total group and focus on departmental issues	

Figure 5

MRS. ANDREWS' FORCE FIELD RANKINGS AND RATINGS

"My improvement goal is to build better communication between teacher partners regarding students, student needs, curriculum, student assignments and student control."



Forces for better communication →

← Forces against better communication

Opposite of goal: Poorer communication between teacher partners

- Teacher partners share same students (11) (hard) (clear) →
- Present physical arrangement facilitates encounter between teacher (9) (hard) (clear) →
- Consistent handling of students makes life easier for all students (9) (med.) (partly clear) →
- Our teachers want to do a good job of helping students (5) (hard) (partly clear) →
- High motivation to seek better communication (2) (med.) (partly clear) →

CURRENT SITUATION

- ← Teachers are short of time (1) (hard) (unclear)
- ← Scheduling of classes makes it hard for partners to meet (7) (medium) (clear)
- ← We haven't worked out efficient ways to share information (4) (easy) (partly clear)
- ← Possible conflicts in interests (8) (hard) (unclear)
- ← General organization is now focused on departments (10) (hard) (clear)
- ← Norms of formal meetings to meet in total group and focus on departmental issues (3) (medium) (partly clear)

Goal: Better communication between teacher partners

These efforts helped Mrs. Andrews identify further forces and further questions that needed to be explored. She began to consider ways that some of these forces could be altered. Her efforts to gather information from other teachers to diagnose what the force fields were, turned out to be an action plan in itself which proved helpful. An increasing number of teachers were becoming active with her in exploring issues so that the situation was already moving toward the goal.

At the end of several weeks, Mrs. Andrews found it helpful to look back over her efforts. She could note the changes which had occurred in her force fields over a time. She knew that her current force field was much more accurate than her first attempts had been. It was based on careful data gathering. She had gathered some kinds of data several times so that she could see evaluatively how some of the forces had changed in response to the action efforts which had been made. Most exciting to Mrs. Andrews was the collaboration which had grown up between herself and other teachers as they worked together using the Force Field Technique tool.

CHAPTER IV

WHO'S RESPONSIBLE FOR WHAT?

Within the school organization, many roles exist, the roles of teacher, principal, vice-principal, counselor, department head, curriculum supervisor, cook, custodian, and secretary. Role is the word given to clusters of responsibilities, rights and duties. Certain definitions of these roles are commonly accepted by the culture and little controversy exists about them. The principal, for instance, may be seen as the formal leader in the school and responsible for relations with parents when they visit school. Counselors are seen as being charged with serving the social-emotional needs of the students. Teachers have charge of classroom processes. Cooks prepare food and custodians maintain the building.

Even though many definitions of these roles seem clear and are generally agreed upon, others are not. It is worthwhile for educators to seek ways of clarifying roles and of gaining consensus about inter-role expectations. In this chapter, we will look at certain roles in the school organization and what behaviors are performed or are expected to be performed in those roles.

We will also look at ways in which people can behave regardless of their role, to influence the movement of their role group or the whole organization. These ways of acting in a group to influence it's movement are called functions. Some functions that are performed at small group meetings are initiating new ideas, asking for opinions, or relieving tensions by telling jokes. We'll find that there are certain ways of functioning in a group or organization which will improve it's production and climate.

Examples of Role Responsibilities in Action

Three central issues concerning roles and functional patterns are present in schools. Communication stops, and groups work ineffectively when these issues are not dealt with optimally. These are:

1. Conflict between persons or within the organization arises when the definition of one's own role responsibilities is in opposition to, or at least different from, the ways in which others look upon that same role.

One example might be the school counselor. Counselors quite often define their role as a social-emotional helper for confused and distraught students. They view what the students tell them during counseling sessions as confidential information. Sometimes teachers are in opposition to such a definition of the counselor's role. They see certain students as colluding with counselors to get out of "tight spots" by finding easy refuge in the permissive counselor's office. Some teachers also expect that the counselor will confide in them about such students so that they (the teacher) can work more effectively with the student during instruction. When counselors withhold this information, teachers with such expectations are understandably disturbed.

When such conflicting definitions are present in a school, it is disruptive. Emphasis should be given to clarifying the role of the counselor by bringing the adversaries involved into discussions about the role.

A second example is found in the team teaching concept. More and more schools are moving toward new types of collaboration between teachers. Sometimes such collaboration occurs in core courses, sometimes in team teaching. In any case, the sharing of resources is rapidly becoming a legitimate activity in schools.

At the same time, a number of teachers define their role in an individuated manner. They see themselves as loners, organizing their classroom activities in very personal ways. Some teachers include academic freedom as one of their role responsibilities, thus supporting the norm of doing things their own way.

This definition of teachpr role often conflicts with organizational attempts at collaboration and team work. If a school wants to use resources more effectively, teachers will have to modify their role conceptions to include more openness and sharing.

Third, the custodian has a role problem in many schools. The students' behavior is not confined to the classroom--it spills over into the halls and playground. Sometimes teachers are not present to exert influence over students in such settings. Custodians are confronted at times with misbehavior and may or may not try to influence it. In many schools, confusion occurs about the disciplinary responsibilities of the custodian.

2. Because the school is a complex network of relationships, the ways in which others perform their roles effect one's performance of his own role.

For example, the role performed by the principal has very important effects on the faculty. In a national survey, Gross and Herriott[1] examined the consequences of the leadership exhibited by elementary school principals. To measure the effects of the leadership behavior of principals on their staffs, they examined the relationship between the principal's leadership behavior and three characteristics of schools used for assessing their effectiveness: staff morale, the professional performance of teachers, and the students' learning. Gross and Herriott found positive and significant relationships between their measures of "executive professional leadership" (EPL) and each of these three variables.

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[1] Gross, N. & Herriott, R. N. Staff Leadership in Public Schools: A Sociological Inquiry. New York: John Wiley & Son, Inc. 1965.

Executive Professional Leadership was defined by Gross and Herriott as the efforts of an executive (principal) of a professional staff organization (school) to conform to a definition of his role which stresses his obligation to improve the quality of staff performance. This definition of the principal's responsibility appears to have significant effects on the school.

Another study (Chesler, Schmuck, and Lippitt, 1963) indicated two ways in which the principal is very important in promoting classroom innovations. First, the principal who has an accurate perception of the values and skills of his staff is better able to encourage innovation. Second, staffs that are aware of the priorities that the principal places on the improvement of classroom teaching are freer to innovate and to talk to one another about innovation. Clear role pictures about the principal are very important for teachers. Communication between principals and faculty about their respective roles with regard to innovation would be a useful vehicle for achieving effective change.

Another example may be found in the fact that group norms powerfully effect behavior in schools. Individuals within a faculty behave predictably because of their adherence to shared expectations for what is appropriate. Norms are compelling stabilizers because individuals monitor one another's behavior. The strength of sharedness makes a school resistant to modification, but, at the same time, offers a tool for planned change.

Members of school staffs often share the expectation that they will not discuss classroom processes (in contrast to individual student problems) in the teacher's lounge. When some staff members attempt to do so, they may be cut off or ignored. Teachers learn to withhold their concerns or create special sub-groups to talk about them.

Another norm held by some staffs opposes speaking out or confronting issues at staff meetings. For some staffs, a norm exists to discourage active, highly emotional interchanges at meetings. Members are supposed to keep conflicting feelings and thoughts to themselves. They are viewed as irresponsible or as not fulfilling their role if they don't.

There is a third example of this interrelatedness of roles. At meetings, staff members may influence one another in many different ways, but two sets of group functions--task and maintenance--are necessary for an effective staff meeting. Task functions apply to completing the work requirements of the meeting, while maintenance functions help the group with its internal cohesion and interpersonal feelings.

Ideally, most staff members, no matter what their role, would be capable of performing both task and maintenance functions. Unfortunately, only a few persons perform task functions, and even fewer perform maintenance functions. Examples of some task functions are: initiating ideas on work procedures, seeking information or opinions from others, giving information or opinions, and summarizing what has gone on in the meeting.

Some maintenance functions, on the other hand, would be seeing that others have a chance to speak, attempting to reconcile disagreements, sensing group mood, and being warm and responsive to others.

Inquiry Questions

The school staff that is concerned with clarifying role responsibilities and in performing the most important group functions at the right time may ask some of the following questions:

How do persons in our school conceive of their roles? Perhaps the staff should discuss role perceptions so that each member knows more about how every other member views his job.

What priorities do people place when defining their roles?

Where do similarities and differences exist in our perceptions of our most important functions as teachers, counselors, or principals?

Another set of questions could include: How does the way one person carries out his role affect other's performance of their roles? Or, what kinds of group norms exist in our school about our responsibilities, and how do they affect our performance?

Further, a staff might inquire: What group functions are occurring or not occurring at our meetings? What kinds of procedures can we use to increase the effectiveness of our meetings?

The instruments presented in the next section of this chapter may be helpful means for collecting information about these questions.

Instruments for Collecting Data

The instruments are divided into three categories. The first set has to do with perceptions that school personnel have about their own role responsibilities. The second group of instruments focus on perceptions of and reactions to the responsibilities of others. Finally, the third set involves group functions performed by staff members.

Conceptions of Own Role Responsibilities

The first instrument helps a teacher, principal, counselor, or some other educator describe his own role. It helps the person to communicate how he values what he does.

INSTRUMENT #4

SELF-CONCEPTION OF OWN ROLE PERFORMANCE

All of us have certain things about our own role performance which we think are important. There are ten numbered blanks on the page below. In the blanks, please write ten adjectives or short descriptive phrases, each referring to the simple statement, "As a teacher, I do the following things." Answer as if you were giving the answers to yourself, not to somebody else. Write the answers in the order that they occur to you. We are interested in both positive and negative aspects. Don't worry about logic but try to be as clear as possible. Write each descriptive word or phrase as rapidly as possible. Your first impressions are good enough.

AS A TEACHER, I DO THE FOLLOWING THINGS:

1. ________________________________ ___
2. ________________________________ ___
3. ________________________________ ___
4. ________________________________ ___
5. ________________________________ ___
6. ________________________________ ___
7. ________________________________ ___
8. ________________________________ ___
9. ________________________________ ___
10. ________________________________ ___

Now go back and evaluate each of these things according to how positive or negative you see it. In order to represent a range, place double plus (++) if you feel the characteristic is quite positive, a (+) single plus if you see it as somewhat positive, a single minus (-) if you see it as somewhat negative, and a double minus (--) if you see the thing as quite negative. Be sure to evaluate each descriptive word or phrase by placing one of these sign configurations on the small line to the right of each. Remember there are four such signs, (++), (+), (-), and (--). Work rapidly.

A balanced evaluation of the self as professional role-taker seems most healthy for effective role performance. Teachers who view themselves quite negatively and are insecure about what they are doing, for instance, will feel more aggressive and negative than teachers with more positive role concepts. Conversely, those teachers who view themselves as only doing very positive and effective things are not very likely to seek out innovations to improve their classroom instruction.

Another way of using this instrument is to ask the person to jot down the ten functions that he thinks others expect him to perform in his role. "Others" can be a generalized group or can be specified, as for instance, when the principal is asked to write ten functions the superintendent expects him to perform. Plus and minus signs can be used to denote how the individual values the function or how well he sees himself performing the activity. If he values the function highly, he uses a plus sign; if he gives it low priority, he uses the minus sign.

The main difference between the first and second uses of this instrument has to do with actual behavior vs. expected behavior. Since a discrepancy between the two may reveal a problem, staff members might be asked to fill out this instrument twice, using the two different instructions each time. An inspection of the differences between actual and expected behavior would give some measure of the extent of alienation of the staff member from the school organization.

The following instrument is another way of gaining information about how staff members define their roles. Each staff member is asked to write about his concepts of his own role by placing one idea on each of twenty-five small index cards. The following instructions can be used:

INSTRUMENT #5

COGNITIVE STRUCTURE OF ONE'S OWN ROLE

Directions: Let us suppose that the following situation occurs. A visiting teacher from a foreign country engages you in conversation about school practices in this country. Assume that your visitor knows very little about American teaching practices. He wants to know what the most important things are that you do in the classroom. What sorts of things would you include in a list which he could refer to as he tries to learn about you as a teacher and what you do in your role?

Using these cards which have been provided, write one item on each card (a word, phrase, or sentence) which describes teacher role performance. Look them over carefully to see if they fall into some broad, natural groupings. If they do, arrange them into such groups. Now look at your groups to see if these can be broken into sub-groups. If they can, separate the cards accordingly. It is also possible that these sub-groups can be broken down still further.

The instruments next described list characteristics which may describe you as a teacher or administrator. Describe your own role performance by rank-ordering the characteristics according to how often you do each one.

INSTRUMENT #6-A

SELF-CONCEPTION OF OWN ROLE (TEACHER)

Rank the following eight items in accord with how often you perform each in your role. Place a "1" by the most frequently performed item, a "2" by the second most frequently performed, and so on down to "8", which will be the least frequently performed item.

Rank	Item
________	Communicate with students as a group.
________	Work with students as individuals or sub-groups.
________	Broaden myself by continuing formal education, reading current journals, attending workshops, participating in training programs, etc.
________	Do study and research in my specialized field.
________	Take part in community affairs concerned with education.
________	Work on the "administrative" aspect of teaching.
________	Try out new teaching techniques and methods.

INSTRUMENT #6-B

SELF-CONCEPTION OF OWN ROLE (ADMINISTRATOR)

Rank the following eight items in accord with how often you perform each in your role. Place a "1" by the most frequently performed item, a "2" by the second most frequently performed, and so on down to "8", which will be the least frequently performed item.

Rank	Item
__________	Report to superiors.
__________	Communicate with subordinates.
__________	Keep parties concerned with a decision informed on progress and actions taken.
__________	Collect feedback from others about my role performance.
__________	Collect information to make decisions.
__________	Make decisions on my own.
__________	Delegate jobs and responsibilities to others.
__________	Involve others in decisions.
__________	Routine bookkeeping and administrative matters.
__________	Work on building staff development programs.

The instrument described next helps to measure the amount of influence staff members feel that each role group has in the school system and how much they ought to have. Results from the two parts of the questionnaire can be compared. Discrepancies between the two can lead to problem-solving sessions which explore the meaning of the discrepancies and the ways of improving the situation.

INSTRUMENT #7

INFLUENCE

1. In general, how much influence do you think the following groups or persons now have in determining educational matters (e.g., curriculum, policy, etc.) in your school? Please indicate

how much influence each person or group has by circling the appropriate number.

		None	A little	Some	Considerable	A great deal
a.	The local school board	1	2	3	4	5
b.	Your superintendent	1	2	3	4	5
c.	The principal of your school	1	2	3	4	5
d.	You, yourself	1	2	3	4	5
e.	A small group of teachers	1	2	3	4	5
f.	Teachers in general	1	2	3	4	5
g.	Curriculum personnel (supervisor, director, or coordinator)	1	2	3	4	5
h.	Students	1	2	3	4	5
i.	Parents	1	2	3	4	5
j.	Teacher unions	1	2	3	4	5
k.	Local colleges and universities	1	2	3	4	5
l.	Guidance and psychological services personnel	1	2	3	4	5
m.	Newspapers	1	2	3	4	5
n.	P.T.A.	1	2	3	4	5
o.	Other community groups (Specify)____________	1	2	3	4	5

2. How much influence do you think these groups or persons ought to have in determining educational matters in your school?

a.	The local school board	1	2	3	4	5
b.	Your superintendent	1	2	3	4	5

		None	A little	Some	Con sider-able	A great deal
c.	The principal of your school	1	2	3	4	5
d.	You, yourself	1	2	3	4	5
e.	A small group of teachers	1	2	3	4	5
f.	Teachers in general	1	2	3	4	5
g.	Curriculum personnel (supervisor, director, or coordinator)	1	2	3	4	5
h.	Students	1	2	3	4	5
i.	Parents	1	2	3	4	5
j.	Teacher unions	1	2	3	4	5
k.	Local colleges and universities	1	2	3	4	5
l.	Guidance and psychological services personnel	1	2	3	4	5
m.	Newspapers	1	2	3	4	5
n.	P.T.A.	1	2	3	4	5
o.	Other community groups (Specify) ______________	1	2	3	4	5

Conceptions of and Reactions to Others' Roles

The first suggestion for an instrument to discover how staff members expect other persons to perform their roles is an open-ended questionniare. It might be constructed as follows:

INSTRUMENT #8

EXPECTATIONS FOR OTHERS

As a ______________________________, I expect persons holding
my own role
the role of ______________________________ to spend most
other role
of their time doing:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

I believe that persons holding that role actually spend their time doing the following:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

The kinds of help I would like to receive from persons holding that role are:

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

The ways staff members define the principal's role have decided effects on the entire operation of the school. The following instrument has been used extensively to measure a condition called Executive Professional Leadership. The EPL of a principal correlates with staff morale, teacher performance, and student achievement.

The principal can also fill out this questionnaire on himself. He should fill it out as he sees himself performing, and as he predicts his staff will view him, thus checking to see if there is a discrepancy between the two. He can also check his own perceptions against the reality of staff judgments.

INSTRUMENT #9

THE PRINCIPAL OF THIS SCHOOL*

To what extent does your principal engage in the following kinds of behavior? In answering, please circle the one number in each row that best describes the behavior of your principal.

	Never	Almost never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost always	Always	I do not know
1. Gives teachers the feeling that their work is an "important activity".	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
2. Gives teachers the feeling that they can make significant contributions to improving the classroom performance of their students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X

*This instrument is copyrighted material and permission from Neil Gross would be needed for it to be used.

	Never	Almost never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost always	Always	I do not know
3. Takes a strong interest in my professional development.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
4. Makes teachers' meetings a valuable educational activity.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
5. Helps to eliminate weaknesses in his school.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
6. Treats teachers as professional workers.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
7. Helps teachers to understand the sources of important problems they are facing.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
8. Displays a strong interest in improving the quality of the educational program.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
9. Brings to the attention of teachers educational literature that is of value to them in their jobs.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
10. Has constructive suggestions to offer teachers in dealing with their major problems.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
11. Gets teachers to upgrade their performance standards in their classrooms.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
12. Maximizes the different skills found in the faculty.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X

	Never	Almost never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost always	Always	I do not know
13. Makes a teacher's life difficult because of his administrative ineptitude.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
14. Runs conferences and meetings in a disorganized fashion.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
15. Has the relevant facts before making important decisions.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
16. Displays inconsistency in his decisions.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
17. Procrastinates in his decision making.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
18. Requires teachers to engage in unnecessary paper work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
19. Displays integrity in his behavior.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
20. Puts you at ease when you talk with him.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
21. Makes those who work with him feel inferior to him.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
22. Develops a real interest in your welfare.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
23. Develops a "we feeling" in working with others.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
24. Rubs people the wrong way.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X

An adaptation of the preceding instrument can be made to obtain data about supervisors and curriculum specialists. The directions are changed, but the items remain the same. Thus, the illustration below will not repeat all the items.

INSTRUMENT #10

COORDINATORS AND SPECIALISTS

Many school systems have personnel with titles such as supervisor, supervising director, curriculum specialist, coordinator, or consultant. Their responsibilities include acting as liaison between the central office and the schools, observing teachers, conferring with principals, working with teacher committees, introducing new curriculum ideas and teaching techniques, or guiding in-service training.

1. Do you have such personnel in your school system? Yes_____ No_____

2. What is the title of the person you have had most contact with, or who is the most important person to you?

   Write the title here: ______________________________

3. How much contact with this person do you have?

   I have had some contact _________
   I have frequent contact _________ with this person.
   I have had no recent contact _________

Now, thinking of the person you have indicated in the space above, to what extent does he or she engage in the following kinds of behavior? Please circle the one number in each row that best describes the behavior of this person.

	Never	Almost never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost always	Always	I do not know
1. Gives teachers the feeling that their work is an "important activity".	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
2. (See preceding instrument)	0	1	2	3	4	5	X

The following adaptation of the instrument may be useful if members of a central office staff wish to find out about the reactions that building principals have to their role performance.

INSTRUMENT #11

YOUR IMMEDIATE SUPERIOR

As a principal, please consider your immediate administrative superior, the person to whom you report and who supervises or guides your work.

Write the title of this person here: ______________________
____

Thinking of this person, to what extent does he or she engage in the following kinds of behavior? In answering, please circle the one number in each row that best describes the behavior of this person.

	Never	Almost never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost always	Always	I do not know
1. Makes principal's life difficult because of his administrative ineptitude.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
2. Runs conferences and meetings in a disorganized fashion.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
3. Has the relevant facts before making important decisions.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
4. Displays inconsistency in his decisions.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
5. Procrastinates in his decision making.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
6. Requires principals to engage in unnecessary paper work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
7. Displays integrity in his behavior.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
8. Puts you at ease when you talk with him.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X

	Never	Almost never	Occasionally	Frequently	Almost always	Always	I do not know
9. Makes those who work with him feel inferior to him.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
10. Develops a real interest in your welfare.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
11. Develops a "we feeling" in working with others.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
12. Rubs people the wrong way.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
13. Gives principals the feeling that their work is an "important" activity.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
14. Gives principals the feeling that they can make significant contributions to improving the classroom performance of teachers.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
15. Helps to eliminate weaknesses in the schools under his jurisdiction.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
16. Takes a strong interest in your professional development.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
17. Helps principals to understand the sources of important problems they are facing.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X
18. Makes principals' meetings of value as an educational activity.	0	1	2	3	4	5	X

The preceding instruments, which measure how staff members think about the important aspects of their roles (Instruments 8 through 11), can also be used to check how staff members view one another. In other words, one can put himself in the shoes of the other person and estimate how the other person would answer the question.

INSTRUMENT #12

ESTIMATES OF HOW OTHERS PERCEIVE THEIR ROLES

Utilizing an instrument such as Instrument #9, "The Principal of This School," put yourself into his shoes and respond to the questions as you think he would. This will give you data to compare with how the principal actually sees himself, and how you and the other teachers define his role, with data on how well you understand the principal's point of view.

Or using Instrument #8, "Expectations for Others", estimate how another teacher with whom you work closely on a committee would fill it out with respect to the principal, so you can see how perceptive you are about your colleagues feelings and expectations about the principal's role.

Group Functions Performed While Acting As A Staff Member

Staff members may influence one another in many different ways, but two sets of group functions--task and maintenance, are necessary for an effective staff meeting. The following two instruments can be used as observation schedules to gather data about the ways group members perform task and maintenance functions.

INSTRUMENT #13

OBSERVATION GUIDE FOR TASK AND MAINTENANCE FUNCTIONS

Task Functions	Initials of Persons Observed Performing These Functions				
1. Initiating: Proposing tasks or goals; defining a group problem; suggesting a procedure for solving a problem; suggesting other ideas for consideration.					

Task Functions	Initials of Persons Observed Performing These Functions				
2. Information or opinion seeking: Requesting facts on a problem; seeking relevant information; asking for information; asking for suggestions and ideas.					
3. Information or opinion giving: Offering facts; providing relevant information; stating a belief; giving suggestions or ideas.					
4. Clarifying or elaborating: Interpreting or reflecting ideas or suggestions; clearing up confusion; indicating alternatives and issues before the group; giving examples.					
5. Summarizing: Pulling related ideas together; restating suggestions after the group has discussed them.					
6. Consensus Testing: Sending up "trial balloons" to see if group is nearing a conclusion; checking with group to see how much agreement has been reached.					
Maintenance Functions					
7. Encouraging: Being friendly, warm and responsive to others; accepting others and their contributions; listening; showing regard for others by giving them an opportunity or recognition.					

2

Maintenance Functions	Initials of Persons Observed Performing These Functions				
8. Expressing group feelings: Sensing feeling, mood, relationships within the group; sharing his own feelings with other members.					
9. Harmonizing: Attempting to reconcile disagreements; reducing tension through "pouring oil on troubled waters"; getting people to explore their differences.					
10. Compromising: Offering to compromise his own position, ideas or status; admitting error; disciplining himself to help maintain the group.					
11. Gate-keeping: Seeing that others have a chance to speak; keeping the discussion a group discussion rather than a 1, 2, or 3-way conversation.					
12. Setting standards: Expressing standards that will help the group to achieve; applying standards in evaluating group functioning and production.					

Another set of observation categories can be useful for improving the quality of meetings:

INSTRUMENT #14

FUNCTIONS PERFORMED BY GROUP MEMBERS

Names ⟶													
Initiating activity													

Seeking information													
Seeking opinion													
Giving information													
Giving opinion													
Blocking													
Summarizing													
Dominating													
Gate-keeping													
Seeking help													
Listening													
Expressing group feeling													
Seeking recognition													
Testing for consensus													
Diagnosing													
Mediating													

Case Study

Several studies done in industry, in voluntary organizations, and in schools have demonstrated that the satisfaction of subordinates is related to the extent they can influence the organization's decision making. These findings suggest that relations between superiors and subordinates in school systems are very much like those in other organizations. Teachers report greatest satisfaction with their principal and the school system when they perceive that they and their principals are mutually influential. This is especially true when they perceive the principal as an expert.

The Problem

School X was not very innovative. A number of committees had started to meet. Several teachers were sent to conferences and reported back at staff meetings. But these efforts did not lead to much new activity on the staff. The staff seemed to be apathetic and not very interested in improving itself.

The principal, his assistant, the counselor, and a few new teachers met to discuss the problem. The theme emerged from the discussion that teachers did not understand their role in innovation. The teachers mostly believed that innovation should take place only in one's own classroom and that a great deal of sharing with others was inappropriate. Furthermore, the teachers felt that any major innovations would be passed on down to them from the administration. But when certain administrators did initiate new ideas, those ideas were not received enthusiastically.

Inquiry Questions

The group asked a consultant for help. Here are some of the questions raised in the group's deliberations with the consultant:

1. Why don't the teachers talk much with one another about new ideas?

2. Why don't the teachers accept a lot of the new ideas initiated by administrators?

3. What keeps our committees and staff meetings from being effective?

The consultant suggested that the teachers' feelings about influence (e.g., what is their appropriate role in decision making?) were a problem and that a simple questionnaire could be filled out to assess how the teachers feel about the extent of their influence.

Instrument Used

Instrument #7, "Influence", was used. Every member of the staff checked how much influence he felt that each role group actually had, and how much influence he felt that each role group ought to have.

The Data

The results are reported in Tables 1 and 2. Responses are reported in terms of percentages of the total staff. The principal's response is shown by underlining the figure which is his response.

TABLE 1

AMOUNT OF INFLUENCE STAFF MEMBERS IN SCHOOL X THINK VARIOUS PERSONS AND GROUPS NOW HAVE

	1	2	3	4	5	X
	None	A little	Some	Considerable	A great deal	No response
a. The local school board	0	13	13	47	27	0
b. Your superintendent	0	7	7	40	46	0
c. The principal of your school	0	0	47	47	6	0
d. You, yourself	13	47	20	13	7	0
e. A small group of teachers	13	40	34	13	0	0
f. Teachers in general	7	27	33	33	0	0
g. Curriculum personnel (supervisor, director, or coordinator)	0	0	7	60	26	7
h. Students	27	40	30	0	0	0
i. Parents	7	67	13	13	0	0
j. Teachers unions	27	0	27	27	13	6
k. Local colleges and universities	7	13	34	33	13	0
l. Guidance and psychological services personnel	0	33	33	20	14	0
m. Newspapers	7	46	40	7	0	0
n. P.T.A.	7	53	33	0	7	0

(Principal's response is underlined.)

TABLE 2

AMOUNT OF INFLUENCE STAFF MEMBERS IN SCHOOL X THINK VARIOUS PERSONS AND GROUPS OUGHT TO HAVE

	1	2	3	4	5	X
	None	A little	Some	Considerable	A great deal	No response
a. The local school board	0	7	7	60	26	0
b. Your superintendent	0	7	7	26	60	0
c. The principal of your school	0	0	27	60	13	0
d. You, yourself	0	13	53	27	7	0
e. A small group of teachers	20	20	33	20	7	0
f. Teachers in general	0	0	27	46	27	0
g. Curriculum personnel (supervisor, director, or coordinator)	0	0	20	53	27	0
h. Students	7	7	53	33	0	0
i. Parents	0	13	60	27	0	0
j. Teacher unions	13	13	20	34	13	7
k. Local colleges and universities	0	13	27	40	20	0
l. Guidance and psychological services personnel	0	20	54	13	13	0
m. Newspapers	20	27	40	13	0	0
n. P.T.A.	7	20	53	13	7	0

(Principal's response is underlined)

Analysis of the Data

A number of questions were raised prior to the analysis of the data. These questions guided the analysis: (1) To what extent do the teachers agree about the actual influence processes? (2) To what extent do the teachers and principal agree with each other? (3) What discrepancies exist between the teachers' values about influence and their perceptions of the actual state of affairs?

Regarding the first question, the teachers generally agree about the actual influence that various role groups do have. One can note the amount of agreement by looking across the table to see how spread out the percentages are on any given line. Most variance occurs farther down in the list with role groups and organizations that are farther away from the formal school organization. Notice the high amount of variance on "local colleges and universities" as well as "teacher unions." In contrast, teachers have high agreement about the "school board," "the superintendent," and the "principal." They are in somewhat less agreement about the actual influence of the teachers. But the teachers in this school seem to agree generally on "who has what degree of influence."

Regarding question #2, some important differences between the principal's and the teachers' view of influence arise. For instance, the principal thinks that small groups of teachers, as well as teachers in general, have considerable influence, while the teachers generally see themselves having less influence. The principal also sees the parents and the guidance and psychological services personnel as having more influence than the teachers do. On other items, there is high agreement. The principal and teachers agree that the school board has "considerable" influence, that the superintendent has "a great deal," and that the principal has "considerable." It should be noted, at the same time, that a sizable percentage of teachers (47 per cent) view the principal as having only "some" influence.

Question number 3 focused on the discrepancies between the actual and desired amount of influence. A number of significant discrepancies can be noted in the teachers' responses. The teachers feel that (a) teachers in general ought to have more influence (although not as much as their administrators), (b) students ought to have much more influence than they currently have, (c) parents ought to have more influence, and (d) guidance and psychological services personnel should have less. It will be noted that 60 per cent of the teachers felt they had "little" or "no" influence. Yet Table 2 shows that most of the respondents (73 per cent) think teachers in general should have "considerable" or "a great deal" of influence.

Findings

The major result of this problem-solving effort in School X seems to be that the distribution of influence seems to be a significant problem. The data indicate that considerable discrepancy exists between the teachers' ideals and their perceptions of the actual state of affairs. They are not suggesting, however, that teachers' power be increased at the expense of the principal's. The data show that the teachers feel the principal ought to have somewhat more influence than he actually has.

Possible Implications and Action Alternatives

1. Teachers are desirous of becoming considerably more influential in the decision-making processes of the school.

2. The principal indicates that he thinks there should be less teacher participation in decision-making.

3. Principal and staff need to examine the decision-making processes within the school. More data may need to be gathered on the kinds of decisions and the circumstances that might require variations in the pattern. An opportunity to openly discuss value orientations as they affect decision-making might contribute to an understanding of current practice and open the way to explore changes.

Summary

This chapter has presented a number of practical suggestions for diagnosing role performance, norms, executive professional leadership, and influence. Further, using influence as an example, the implications for change have been developed in one school which diagnosed its own influence patterns.

CHAPTER V

WHAT ARE OUR TYPICAL WAYS OF DOING THINGS?

As a group of people work together, tacit agreement develops rather quickly about the ways members should behave in the variety of work and social settings they share. The agreements define what is O. K. to do and what is not O. K. in specific situations. A social scientist would use the term norms to describe these tacit agreements about how-we-do-things around here.

In your building, individuals and sub-groups probably have differing perceptions of the "in" way to behave in certain situations and may be unanimous about others. Your staff norms probably have a private life and have not been looked at openly or systematically.

One way to think about the norms that exist in your building is to imagine that you are a new member of the staff. What questions would you have in your mind about appropriate behavior? How would you find out? For one thing, you would probably ask a number of questions and you would conduct a series of careful observations. You may not realize it, but you would, in a sense, be a working anthropologist for those first few days as you tried to discover and understand the culture and mores of the building.

You may wish to use this approach as a diagnostic procedure. This type of study requires skills of careful observation, accurate, objective reporting, and ability to draw generalizations from a large pool of descriptive data.

As you proceeded with your investigation, you would very likely discover that people give different answers to your questions. Your observations would indicate that, in most situations, members of the staff behave very much alike; in other situations, different sets of rules are observed. You will find that many of the "typical ways of doing things" are not stated in a manual or orientation guide and, quite often, there has been no discussion or explicit agreement about these "informal" but persistent rules.

You might wonder how these norms develop. Many are merely transported from other settings and situations. Others become established when one or more persons, particularly those who may be regarded as leaders, behave in a similar fashion. This may very quickly get defined as "the way" to behave.

These norms may be very helpful. They enable the individual to know what is acceptable, appropriate behavior and what can be reasonably expected of others. Not to have any rules, whether formal or informal, would present a confusing situation if continued for a period of time. On the other hand, the way we do things may be continued just because it is expected, traditional, comfortable, or unexamined. Circumstances change, new conditions arise and typical ways may become obsolete, irrelevent or actually prevent desirable outcomes.

Why Inquire?

A staff member might well ask the question, "Why should we study the norms of our building? Things seem to be going along fine." One purpose for such diagnostic inquiry is to obtain a clearer, more specific picture of building norms. Since these kinds of rules governing behavior are not ordinarily verbalized or made explicit, putting them down precisely helps to make them visible. This makes it easier to assess the usefulness or productivity of the norm.

Another purpose may be to determine the degree to which any given norm is shared by members of the staff. If there is a high level of agreement about a particular norm, staff members will tend to behave consistently. If there is low agreement, there will be confusion and lack of clarity.

A third reason may be to determine the degree to which staff members agree or disagree about what they want to have happen in school. Frequently a staff works under a condition of pluralistic ignorance. An individual wants to move in a certain direction but assumes that others would oppose it or would not be interested enough to support it. At the same time, other members of the staff may privately hold the same interest, but do not share it. Common interests are not shared. Action is not taken.

What Are Our Norms?

One way to identify the norms in your building is to informally discuss norm issues with the principal, supervisors or other teachers. If their interest is stimulated, suggest that they support a meeting of volunteer staff members to have a brainstorm session to get out ideas about in-home norms. This will be a start on collecting data.

The ground rules for brainstorming are simple, but very important. First, make sure that all participants have a clear understanding of the topic. Second, announce and enforce the rule that every idea is accepted and recorded without criticism, judgment, or evaluation no matter how wild or impractical it may seem. Ample blackboard or newsprint space will be needed and two persons should be designated to record ideas as they are produced. After a period of 20 to 30 minutes, or when idea production appears to have stopped, the material can be categorized, evaluated, and a final list of useful items developed.

To gain the entire staff's perceptions of building norms, organize into a questionnaire the ideas from the brainstorming which are judged to be most important for work in the building. Some groundwork will need to be laid with the staff about the value and need for examining the norms before the questionnaire is introduced. It is important that the data from the questionnaire be reported back to the staff and time be set aside for work on changing those norms which impede productive work and strengthening those which are functional.

For example, in a high school building the principal wanted to visit classrooms to understand the issues and concerns teachers were facing, but had not actually done so. When asked why he did not make classroom visits the principal said, "Well, I really don't think any of the teachers want me to do this and would resent it if I dropped by their classroom." Yet, some teachers said, "I wish the principal would come and visit my classes occasionally, but I don't think he wants to do that. Besides, he's very busy and probably doesn't have the time."

In another situation, an elementary school building, a young teacher in her first year of classroom work was located across the hall from a teacher who had many years of experience. The younger teacher said, "You know, many times I wanted to talk to Helen. With all her years of experience, she would be able to give me some great ideas on how to handle some of the things that have come up in my classroom. I really don't think she'd like it, though. A teacher ought to be able to take care of her own problems." On the other hand, Helen, the experienced teacher, said, "I've been wanting to ask Mary for some of her ideas. She's just out of college and would be acquainted with new materials and approaches. I don't think she would want to talk with me though, as it's been years since I received my training."

In both of these examples, the norms governing behavior, based on incorrect assumptions about the other, had prevented desired action from taking place. When correct information about the wishes of the principal and the teachers was shared, the classroom visits did take place and Helen and Mary shared their ideas and experiences.

Instruments for Obtaining Data

If it is not feasible to develop a questionnaire for your building staff, instruments designed to obtain data about perceptions of norms can be used or adapted to your needs. Such an instrument is best used in its entirety, but selected items can be used if your situation requires it.

INSTRUMENT #15

DO'S AND DON'TS

In any school system, there are informal "do's and don'ts". They are rarely written down anywhere, but they serve as a kind of code, making it clear what people in the system should and should not do if they are to be accepted by others.

Below, there is a list of specific things that a person--an administrator, a teacher, a staff member--might do or say. We would like you to estimate what most people in this building would feel about each item. That is, we want you to tell us whether the predominant feeling of most of the people in this building is that one should or should not do or say the thing in question. You can indicate your answer by placing a check mark (✓) in the appropriate column--should or should not--beside each item.

For example:

The majority of people would feel that one...

		SHOULD	SHOULD NOT
X.	Follow administrative directives.	✓	____
Y.	Complain when things are not going right.	____	✓
Z.	Spread rumors.	____	✓

The above examples would show that you believe that most people feel that one should follow administrative directives and one should not complain when things are not going right, nor spread rumors.

1.	Ask others who seem upset to express their feelings directly.	____	____
2.	Tell colleagues what you really think of their work.	____	____
3.	Look for ulterior motives in other people's behavior.	____	____
4.	Always ask "Why?" when you don't know.	____	____
5.	Avoid disagreement and conflict whenever possible.	____	____

		SHOULD	SHOULD NOT
6.	Consult with people under you in making decisions that affect them--even minor ones.	______	________
7.	Question well-established ways of doing things.	______	________
8.	Be concerned about other people's problems.	______	________
9.	Only make a decision after everyone's ideas have been fully heard.	______	________
10.	Disagree with your superior if you happen to know more about the issue than he does.	______	________
11.	Withold personal feelings, and stick to the logical merits of the case in any discussion.	______	________
12.	Push for new ideas, even if they are vague or unusual.	______	________
13.	Ask others to tell you what they really think of your work.	______	________
14.	Keep your real thoughts and reactions to yourself, by and large.	______	________
15.	Trust others not to take advantage of you.	______	________
16.	Be skeptical about things.	______	________
17.	Point out other people's mistakes, to improve working effectiveness.	______	________
18.	Listen to others' ideas, but reserve the decision to yourself.	______	________
19.	Try out new ways of doing things, even if it's uncertain how they will work out.	______	________
20.	Stay "cool"--keep your distance from others.	______	________
21.	Use formal voting as a way of making decisions in small groups.	______	________

		SHOULD	SHOULD NOT
22.	Set up committees which bypass or cut across usual channels or lines of authority.		
23.	Spend time in meetings on emotional matters which are not strictly germane to the task.		
24.	Be critical towards unusual or "way out" ideas.		
25.	Tell other people what they want to hear, rather than what you really think.		
26.	Stick with familiar ways of doing things in one's work.		
27.	Trust others to be helpful in difficult situations.		

The Do's and Don'ts instrument could also be used to gain a different kind of data. If each staff member fills it out to indicate how he, himself, feels about what is appropriate or good to do, it will be possible to check the perceived norms against what each person thinks; which may or may not be discrepant with the perceived norms. The same norm questions would be raised, but in the following format:

INSTRUMENT #16

MY OWN POSITION REGARDING

DO'S AND DON'TS

Directions: Please think about how you, yourself, feel about each of the items listed below. Naturally, your feeling will depend on the particular circumstances involved. But try to consider how you typically feel in most situations. To indicate your answer, place a check (✓) in the column that shows your own attitude. For instance, regarding the first item, if you feel that one should not ask others who seem upset to express their feelings directly, check in the second column, "I feel that you should not." Think only about your own feelings.

		I feel that you SHOULD		I feel that you SHOULD NOT	
1.	Ask others who seem upset to express their feelings directly.		+		+

	I feel that you SHOULD	I feel that you SHOULD NOT
2. Etc., using items similar to those in Instrument #15 . .		

Group norms have a powerful effect on the way staff members relate to each other. Norms are shared expectations about one anothers' behavior. To some extent, staff members carry out their regular tasks because they believe others expect them to do so. The following instrument provides a basis for exploring some of the norms that guide behavior in your building.

INSTRUMENT #17

OUR TYPICAL BEHAVIOR

1. Suppose a teacher (let's call him Teacher X) disagrees with something B says at a staff meeting. If teachers you know in your school were in Teacher X's place, what would most of them be likely to do?

   Would most of the teachers you know seek out B to discuss the disagreement?

   ( ) Yes, I think most would do this.
   ( ) Maybe about half would do this.
   ( ) No, most would not.
   ( ) I don't know.

   Would they keep it to themselves and say nothing about it?

   ( ) Yes, I think most would do this.
   ( ) Maybe about half would do this.
   ( ) No, most would not.
   ( ) I don't know.

2. Suppose a teacher (let's call him Teacher X) feels hurt and put down by something another teacher has said to him. In Teacher X's place, would most of the teachers you know in your building be likely to . . .

   . . . avoid the other teacher?

   ( ) Yes, I think most would.
   ( ) Maybe about half would.
   ( ) No, most would not.
   ( ) I don't know.

. . . tell the other teacher that they felt hurt and put down?

( ) Yes, I think most would.
( ) Maybe about half would.
( ) No, most would not.
( ) I don't know.

. . . tell their friends that the other teacher is hard to get along with?

( ) Yes, I think most would.
( ) Maybe about half would.
( ) No, most would not.
( ) I don't know.

3. Suppose you are in a committee meeting with Teacher X and the other members begin to describe their personal feelings about what goes on in the school. Teacher X quickly suggests that the committee get back to the topic and keep the discussion objective and impersonal. How would you feel toward X?

( ) I would approve strongly.
( ) I would approve mildly or some.
( ) I wouldn't care one way or the other.
( ) I would disapprove mildly or some.
( ) I would disapprove strongly.

4. Suppose you are in a committee meeting with Teacher X and the other members begin to describe their personal feelings about what goes on in the school. Teacher X listens to them and tells them his own feelings. How would you feel toward X?

( ) I would approve strongly.
( ) I would approve mildly or some.
( ) I wouldn't care one way or the other.
( ) I would disapprove mildly or some.
( ) I would disapprove strongly.

5. Suppose Teacher X wants to improve his classroom effectiveness. In Teacher X's place, would most of the teachers in your building . . .

. . . ask another teacher to observe his teaching and then have a conference afterward?

( ) Yes, I think most would do this.
( ) Maybe about half would do this.
( ) No, most would not.
( ) I don't know.

. . . ask other teachers to let him (Teacher X) observe how the other teachers teach, to get ideas how to improve his own teaching?

( ) Yes, I think most would do this.
( ) Maybe about half would do this.
( ) No, most would not.
( ) I don't know.

. . . have a free and open discussion with his students about his teaching?

( ) Yes, I think most would do this.
( ) Maybe about half would do this.
( ) No, most would not.
( ) I don't know.

. . . ask the principal to observe his teaching and then have a conference afterward?

( ) Yes, I think most would do this.
( ) Maybe about half would do this.
( ) No, most would not.
( ) I don't know.

6. Suppose Teacher X disagrees with a procedure that the principal has outlined for all to follow. If Teacher X were to go and talk with the principal about his disagreement, how would you feel about it?

( ) I would approve strongly.
( ) I would approve mildly or some.
( ) I wouldn't care one way or the other.
( ) I would disapprove mildly or some.
( ) I would disapprove strongly.

7. Suppose Teacher X disagrees with a procedure that the principal has outlined for all to follow. If X were to say nothing but ignore the principal's directive, how would you feel about it?

( ) I would approve strongly.
( ) I would approve mildly or some.
( ) I wouldn't care one way or the other.
( ) I would disapprove mildly or some.
( ) I would disapprove strongly.

8. Suppose Teacher X develops a particularly useful and effective method for teaching something. If X were to describe the method briefly at a faculty meeting and offer to meet further with any who wanted to know more, how would you feel about it?

( ) I would approve strongly.

( ) I would approve mildly or some.
( ) I wouldn't care one way or the other.
( ) I would disapprove mildly or some.
( ) I would disapprove strongly.

Faculty meetings provide one of the most frequently used forums for interaction and decision-making. Norms develop around faculty meetings, too. There are understood rules about what is appropriate to bring up for discussion or how problems get talked about or dealt with. The following instrument provides a means for assessing some of these norms about faculty meetings.

INSTRUMENT #18

MEETINGS

You will probably agree that school systems hold alot of meetings, such as faculty meetings, committees, administrative staff meetings, Board sessions, department meetings, and the like.

We are asking you to focus on the ____________ meeting.

Now please consider what usually or typically happens in this meeting. For each of the items below, please circle the appropriate number.

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never
1. When problems come up in the meeting, they are thoroughly explored until everyone understands what the problem is.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The first solution proposed is often accepted by the group.	1	2	3	4	5
3. People come to the meeting not knowing what is to be presented or discussed.	1	2	3	4	5

	Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never
4. People ask why the problem exists, what the causes are.	1	2	3	4	5
5. There are many problems which people are concerned about which never get on the agenda.	1	2	3	4	5
6. There is a tendency to propose answers without really having thought the problem and its causes through carefully.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The group discusses the pros and cons of several different alternate solutions to a problem.	1	2	3	4	5
8. People bring up extraneous or irrelevant matters.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The average person in the meeting feels that his ideas have gotten into the discussion.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Someone summarizes progress from time to time.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Decisions are often left vague--as to what they are, and who will carry them out.	1	2	3	4	5

	Almost Always	Often	Some-times	Seldom	Almost Never
12. Either before the meeting or at its beginning, any group member can easily get items on to the agenda.	1	2	3	4	5
13. People are afraid to be openly critical or make good objections.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The group discusses and evaluates how decisions from previous meetings worked out.	1	2	3	4	5
15. People do not take the time to really study or define the problem they are working on.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The same few people seem to do most of the talking during the meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
17. People hesitate to give their true feelings about problems which are discussed.	1	2	3	4	5
18. When a decision is made, it is clear who should carry it out, and when.	1	2	3	4	5
19. There is a good deal of jumping from topic to topic--it's often unclear where the group is on the agenda.	1	2	3	4	5

		Almost Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Almost Never
20.	From time to time in the meeting, people openly discuss the feelings and working relationships in the group.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	The same problems seem to keep coming up over and over again from meeting to meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	People don't seem to care about the meeting, or want to get involved in it.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	When the group is thinking about a problem, at least two or three different solutions are suggested.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	When there is disagreement, it tends to be smoothed over or avoided.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Some very creative solutions come out of this group.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	Many people remain silent.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	When conflicts over decisions come up, the group does not avoid them, but really stays with the conflict and works it through.	1	2	3	4	5
28.	The results of the group's work are not worth the time it takes.	1	2	3	4	5

		Almost Always	Often	Some-times	Seldom	Almost Never
29.	People give their real feelings about what is happening during the meeting itself.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	People feel very committed to carrying out the solutions arrived at by the group.	1	2	3	4	5
31.	When the group is supposedly working on a problem, it is really working on some other "under the table" problem.	1	2	3	4	5
32.	People feel antagonistic or negative during the meeting.	1	2	3	4	5
33.	There is no follow-up of how decisions reached at earlier meetings worked out in practice.	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Solutions and decisions are in accord with the chairman's or leader's point of view, but not necessarily with the members'.	1	2	3	4	5
35.	There are splits or deadlocks between factions or sub-groups.	1	2	3	4	5
36.	The discussion goes on and on without any decision being reached.	1	2	3	4	5
37.	People feel satisfied or positive during the meeting.	1	2	3	4	5

Meetings vary according to their primary focus of attention. They may be mainly focused on information-giving --making announcements, explaining plans or rules, dealing with routine matters. Or they may be mainly focused on problem-solving--discussion and decision, working out answers to problems on the spot.

38. Thinking now of the meeting you have been describing, check the appropriate phrase. Most of the time is spent on . . .

________	________
information-giving	problem-solving

39. Now, still thinking of this meeting, where should most of the time be spent? Check one. . .

________	________
information-giving	problem-solving

The faculty may wish to exaimine the range of individual scores, and it may wish to compute an average (mean) score. A discussion of individual items of the instrument may stimulate an examination of some of the practices which could be improved.

The instruments presented in the preceding pages are designed to obtain two types of information; staff members' perceptions of the way others typically feel or behave; and how the individual himself typically feels or behaves in a given instance. The instruments present different examples of item content, item format and the way in which staff members are asked to respond.

Case Study

Staff members in an elementary building expressed dissatisfaction and frustration with a lack of commitment and follow through on agreements and decisions. This appeared to be true for staff meetings as well as less formal working agreements between members of a committee or sub-group of the staff. It seemed that quite often, after a decision or agreement had been reached, members were dissatisfied with the arrangements or did not follow through in implementing the decisions reached.

A committee of the staff met with a consultant to review the situation and develop ways of improving working relationships in the building. From these discussions it became apparent that committee members had quite different perceptions of the way people worked together in the building and of what they individually wanted as a good working situation. Three major questions were raised as a focus for inquiry:

1. How do staff members think we typically work together?

2. How do staff members individually feel about the way we work?

3. Why are our decisions and agreements often not accepted?

Since the focus in these three questions was the way staff members worked with each other, it was agreed that information about norms which influenced their ways of working together would be helpful. The instrument selected for use was "Do's and Don'ts". It was administered to all staff members at a regualr staff meeting. After the purpose of the instrument was explained, each member was asked to complete the items as directed.

Staff members' responses to each item were recorded. Items which pertained specifically to the diagnostic inquiry questions were then examined in greater detail. For example, the responses to item 14, "Keep your real thoughts and reactions to yourself, by and large", are presented in Table 3.

One staff member did not respond to this item, and one staff member did not check his own feeling. Looking at indications of the way staff members feel about this item, we see that four checked "Should", nine checked "Should not", and two did not indicate. In terms of the fifteen people responding to this item 23 per cent of the staff prefer "Should", meaning that they feel that you should keep your real thoughts and reactions to yourself, by and large. Whereas, it is perceived that 48% (Column 1) would have said should. Sixty per cent of the staff felt that you should not. Rounding the percentages off, we note that individual preferences are as follows:

(1) Should	(2) Should Not	(3) No Indication
30%	60%	10%

If we compare this percentage distribution with the estimates provided by staff members about the others in the building, we can note the degree to which individuals' perceptions of other staff members' feelings on this item are accurate or not.

The perceptions regarding the number of staff members who feel you "should" or "should not" keep your real thoughts and reactions to yourself are quite inaccurate. Only three estimates are close to the 30, 60, 10 per cent distribution--those of teachers number 2, 4, and 6. Seven teachers estimated that from 65 per cent to 85 per cent felt you should keep your thoughts to yourself; less than 35 per cent of the teachers indicated that they themselves felt that way.

Implications and Action Alternatives

When the responses to item 14 are considered in conjunction with data from other relevant items, it becomes evident that staff members are not very clear about how others feel about the way work is typically

TABLE 3

STAFF MEMBERS' ESTIMATES OF THEIR PEERS' REACTIONS TO THE NORM, "KEEP YOUR REAL THOUGHTS AND REACTIONS TO YOURSELF"

Staff Member	Per Cent Who Would Feel That You Should	Per Cent Who Would Feel That Should Not	How Do You Feel?
1	45	55	-
2	25	75	Should
3	-	-	-
4	35	65	Should Not
5	15	85	Should Not
6	25	75	Should Not
7	75	25	Should
8	65	35	Should Not
9	80	20	Should
10	15	85	Should Not
11	65	35	Should
12	75	25	Should Not
13	85	15	Should Not
14	65	35	Should Not
15	15	85	Should Not
Principal	45	55	-
Means	48	51	22.50

done. The degree of discrepancy between perceptions about the staff and individual's feelings reveals a considerable degree of mutual ignorance and a lack of clarity about building norms.

The data answer the first and second inquiry questions. The third question is not as directly answered by these data. Since the responses to item 14 are perceptions and not indications of behavior, it can only be hypothesized at this point that staff members are inclined to withhold their "real thoughts and reactions". It is likely that, since about half of the staff perceive the majority as feeling this way, the norm is not to share thoughts and reactions when decisions and agreements are being made. If this is true, then staff members will be dissatisfied. They will probably lack commitment, since the decision or agreement does not reflect the way they think and feel about the situation.

The immediate next steps would appear to be sharing the data with all the staff members and providing time for study and discussion. The staff can then examine the consequences of these norms which produce dissatisfaction and low productivity and plan corrective action. During such study and discussion of the building norms, other inquiry questions may be developed which require diagnostic data collection in other areas of staff relationships.

CHAPTER VI

HOW DO WE USE ONE ANOTHER'S RESOURCES?

School staffs seldom share new ideas and practices. Staff members often do not know what others are doing. Each faculty member is deeply immersed in his own classroom, spending long hours preparing and teaching, finding little time or energy for communicating with colleagues about professional matters. In most schools, even when teachers are aware of what others are doing in their classrooms, they spend little time actively sharing ideas.

Certainly, the sharing of new practices in education is not easy, but new forms of sharing and mutual stimulation among teachers can be developed. The instruments in this chapter may encourage school staffs to make more efforts to seek, share, and try out new teaching practices.

Examples of Hindrances to Sharing

A number of factors hinder the sharing of staff resources in a school faculty. Some of these are: (1) the innovative idea may be difficult for other teachers to use, (2) the physical arrangements, lack of time, and administrative responsibilities keep teachers from sharing, (3) characteristics of the social structure of the school make it difficult for sharing, and characteristics of the individual teachers affect sharing. We will describe through examples how each of these factors can inhibit sharing of new practices.

The New Idea May Be Difficult for Others To Use

Some examples are:

(1) Teachers often see new practices as working well in other classrooms but as not capable of working in their own. This is especially true when the teacher views the practice as not meeting the needs of his students or as not facilitating his own goals. In order for a practice to be used effectively by a teacher, he must view it as satisfying the needs of his students or his goals. This should be taken into consideration in any attempt to increase teachers' sharing of new practices.

(2) Teachers are very busy people. They usually have strong desires to improve but at the same time have little energy to make major modifications in their work. If a new practice requires a great deal of time, energy, and new skills, it will be difficult to pass on to others.

(3) Teachers expose their values and personality constantly in the classroom. Indeed, teaching differs significantly from fields involving physical and biological technology primarily because new practices in teaching have to be filtered through a teacher's values and personality before they are operational. It's relatively easy for a farmer to change the kind of seed he uses or the way he plants, without changing his values or personality. The teacher, on the other hand, who is asked to use groups more and to increase student praticipation by talking less must confront his values and personal needs. Some teachers may not want to do this.

(4) Teachers will be less likely to try a new classroom practice if new facilities are needed before the practice can be used. In the first place, teachers usually lack the organizational influence required to get the new facilities quickly. Even if they are available, there is reluctance to use them because of the time and energy needed to set them up. Teachers may agree to try a new practice involving new facilities if a competent aide helps.

(5) Perhaps the most frequent inhibition to sharing new practices is the perception that nothing is very new or different anyway. Some teachers believe that all worthwhile practices have been tried already and that sharing ideas is a waste of time. Anything unique is seen as working for only a very few teachers or student groups.

The School's Physical Arrangements Make It Difficult for Sharing

Examples are:

(1) In most elementary schools, teachers have no time to get together to discuss new practices because they are with the children throughout the day. Time often is available in high schools, but generally teachers do not share free periods with others in their department or special area. Schools generally are structured so each individual teacher is expected to carry out his own tasks. He is separated from his colleagues except for brief, informal contacts.

(2) When teachers are not working with students, they quite often are preparing class plans, grading papers, or carrying out clerical and administrative duties. These extra work pressures also mitigate against discussing new ideas with colleagues.

(3) Classrooms are physically separated one from the other. Often, teachers use only one or two rooms in the school. A staff member's view of the staff is restricted by his lack of mobility around the building.

The Social Structure of the Faculty Often Decreases Sharing

Examples might include:

(1) Patterns of social relationships emerge in faculties that often make sharing difficult. Teachers build friendships in small clusters or sub-groups. Sharing of new ideas is done reasonably well in the friendship clusters, but not between them. Quite often sharing doesn't even occur in the friendship clusters because of group norms which reinforce privatism and isolation.

(2) In most schools the reward system does not support experimentation, and the administration doesn't know what valuable or poor things are going on in the classroom. This may be interpreted to mean that those teachers who don't "rock the boat" move up fast.

(3) Specific relationships between principal and teachers can facilitate or inhibit sharing. Many principals often discourage a teacher's deviating very far from how others are doing things. Other principals encourage teachers with similar teaching interests to get together and hope that teachers will try the "way-out things."

Some Personal Characteristics of Teachers Keep Staffs from Sharing

Examples are:

(1) Some teachers are highly dogmatic and rigid. They are afraid to try new ideas which may alter their usual teaching style.

(2) Some teachers have a provincial point of view. They do not travel very much; they go to few professional meetings, have stopped taking classes, and do not read much. They teach as they have been for years. Most of their time is spent in family commitments or in pursuing other interests. Such teachers have little motivation to share with other teachers.

Inquiry Questions

The school staff that wishes to become more innovative may ask some of the following questions:

What new ideas and practices are there that I should know about? How do my practices measure up to the latest things?

What might we do as a staff to increase teacher discussions about innovations? Is there any procedure available for recording innovations and getting them around to other teachers?

What is going on in other schools in our district? How can we be in touch with others who are innovating without spending a great deal of time away from our students?

Instruments for Collecting Data

The questionnaires offered here facilitate staff sharing about new practices more than they help diagnose how innovative the school is.

INSTRUMENT #19

CLASSROOM INNOVATIONS

We are interested in knowing of classroom innovations which you have invented, discovered, or tried in your classroom. This is not meant to include new programs adopted by the school system, such as modern math, but rather your own classroom innovations.

1. Please think of the various innovations which you have tried out in your own classroom during the past year.

Please check one: _____ I have tried some.
_____ I have tried none.
(If so, please skip to question 8)

We would like you to consider the new classroom practice which you regard as most significant or interesting. Please describe it briefly. What specifically did you do?

____

____

____

2. The classroom practice you just described can be "original with you" (i.e., you invented it), or you "got it from somewhere else." Please check below the position that best describes your practice.

_____ Original with me (to the best of my knowledge).

_____ Got it somewhere else and made major changes.

_____ Got it somewhere else and made minor changes.

_____ Got it somewhere else without making changes.

3. If not totally original, where did you get it? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ Teacher in this school.

_____ My principal.

_____ Magazine or journal.

_____ Workshop, conference or institute.

_____ My department head.

_____ Book.

_____ Student.

_____ Local curriculum materials.

_____ Teacher in another school.

_____ Outside consultants

_____ University class.

_____ Supervisor, coordinator, curriculum worker.

_____ A parent.

_____ Guidance or psychological service worker.

_____ Other ____
(Please specify)

4. How did you hear about it? (Check as many as apply).

_____ Formal explanation.

_____ Informal conversation.

_____ Observed it in use.

_____ Special demonstration.

_____ Audio-visual (film, TV, slides, tape, etc.)

_____ Written account.

_____ Other ________________________________
(Please specify)

5. As far as you know, to what extent is the practice you described being used by other teachers? (Please check one.)

_____ To a great extent.

_____ Quite a bit.

_____ To some extent.

_____ A little.

_____ Not at all.

6. How often in the past year have you told other teachers about this particular classroom practice?

_____ Never

_____ Once or twice.

_____ Several times.

_____ Often.

7. To what extent are you likely to use this practice you have just described again?

_____ To a great extent.

_____ Quite a bit.

_____ To some extent.

_____ A little.

_____ Not at all.

8. To what extent do you feel you know what new practices other teachers are using to improve pupil learning in their classrooms?

_____ To a great extent.

_____ Quite a bit.

_____ To some extent.

_____ A little.

_____ Not at all.

9. Looking at yourself as a teacher, how much time and energy do you put in on classroom innovations--ones you have invented or discovered?

_____ A lot.

_____ Quite a bit.

_____ Some.

_____ A little.

_____ None.

10. During this past year, about how many classroom innovations would you say you have tried out?

_____ 0-1 time

_____ 2-4 times

_____ 5-8 times

_____ 9-12 times

_____ 13 or over

It may be of interest to find out how many of the teachers have had something to do with the more commonly-known innovative practices:

INSTRUMENT #20

HAVE YOU TRIED IT?

Here is a list of some new or unusual classroom teaching practices. For each practice, proceed as follows:

1. If you have not heard of this practice, circle "No" in the first column and skip to the next practice.

2. If you have heard of the practice, circle "Yes", and check each of the columns across that apply to you and leave the rest blank.

3. Fill in the last column with the number of teachers in your building that you know have tried the practice. Put zero if nobody has.

	Have heard of it	Have considered trying it	Have tried it but do not use it regularly	Am using it regularly	No. of teachers in my building who have tried it
1. Pupil participation in curriculum planning.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
2. Pupil participation in classroom planning.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
3. Having pupils work in small learning teams.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
4. Role playing (acting out situations).	No Yes	____	____	____	____
5. Use of game to aid learning.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
6. Pupil reactions to classroom climate via questionnaires.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
7. Pupil participation in developing classroom rules.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
8. Group discussion of problem behavior.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
9. Involving pupils in community projects.	No Yes	____	____	____	____
10. Curriculum units that promote skill in interpersonal relationships.	No Yes	____	____	____	____

	Have heard of it	Have considered trying it	Have tried it but do not use it regularly	Am using it regularly	No. of teachers in my building who have tried it
11. Community pool (utilizing local citizens as resource personnel.)	No Yes	____	____	____	____
12. Pupils as helpers or tutors of other pupils.	No Yes	____	____	____	____

The following instrument may be helpful in gaining a description of a classroom innovation.

INSTRUMENT #21

WHAT'S NEW IN YOUR CLASSROOM?

What sorts of new things are going on in your classroom? Help us to understand these innovative practices by responding to each of the following questions with as much detail as possible.

1. Please describe the most significant one of your new practices. What specifically do you do?
2. What kind of problem regarding students' learning are you trying to solve?
3. What are the goals of the practice?
4. Does the practice require any special training or preparation on the teacher's part?
5. Does the practice require any special equipment or facilities?
6. Are there any special difficulties or operating problems?
7. What pitfalls should the interested teacher look out for before trying the above practice?

Another open question instrument can be used to find out something about the communication of innovative practices:

INSTRUMENT #22

PERCEPTIONS OF THE CLASSROOM INNOVATIONS OF OTHERS

What sorts of new things do you know that others in this building are doing in curriculum?

What sorts of new things do you know that others in this building are doing in group processes?

What sorts of new things do you know others are doing with audio-visual aides?

Would you like to have discussions with any of these persons? If so, which ones?

When staff members do not know about or agree with one another's values and goals, they spend a large amount of energy in interpersonal conflict. When a staff increases the clarity of values and goals, perceived disagreements often disappear and sharing of new ideas increases. Group procedures are needed to explore goal differences, to help the staff become more accurate about them, and to assist staff members to become open about differences.

The instrument that follows can be used to elicit teachers' judgments on where their energies should be placed. The results can be used to initiate groups for working on new classroom and school system innovations.

INSTRUMENT #23

EDUCATIONAL GOALS

Rank order the following goals according to their importance for your school system during the next few years. Do the ranking from your personal point of view. Put a "one" by the most important, a "2" by the next most important and so on until you get to "10" for the least important.

1.____Reducing the dropout rate.

2.____Improving attention to basic skills in the first three grades.

3.____Improving attention to physical health and safety of students.

4.____Increasing children's motivation and desire to learn.

5.____Improving learning opportunities for disadvantaged children.

6.____Increasing the percentage of college attention by seniors.

7.____Improving discipline and the behavior of "difficult" children.

8.____Improving the quality of student academic achievement at all levels.

9.____Improving children's adherence to moral, ethical, and patriotic standards.

10.____Improving learning opportunities for gifted or talented children.

Several open-ended questions can be used to diagnose what staff members hope to be learning and doing over the next few years:

INSTRUMENT #24

PERSONAL IMPROVEMENT GOALS

1. What skills would you like to develop during the next few years?

2. What topics do you feel are important to cover in in-service training sessions?

3. What knowledge about students would you like to have?

4. What new ideas about teaching and learning would you like to study during the next few years?

INSTRUMENT #25

INNOVATIONS IN THE SCHOOL SYSTEM

Many school systems are trying out new educational practices on a system-wide basis. A number of such practices are listed below. Please read through the list, then answer the questions on the following pages.

A. Independent study. Regularly scheduled work by individual pupils with a minimum of teacher direction.

B. Language laboratory. Audio equipment arranged to permit individual members of a class to hear speech, practice speaking, and hear playback.

C. Non-graded classes. Pupils are assigned to classes on the basis of ability, without regard to traditional one-year steps.

D. Multi-graded classes. Pupils traditionally assigned to one of two or three sequential vertical grades are assigned to single classes comprising two or more grade levels; work in various subjects is determined by the individual pupil's ability within the limits of the grade-span.

E. Schools-within-a-school. The organization within a physical unit of two or more partially autonomous "schools," each with its own administrative, supervisory, and teaching personnel and pupils; all "schools" may be under the leadership of a single person, however.

F. PSSC Physics. The curriculum materials and teaching practices developed by the Physical Science Study Committee.

G. Team teaching. An arrangement in which two or more teachers plan and execute together the instructional program for a number of pupils, generally in the same or adjoining rooms.

H. Teacher aides. Regular employment of personnel to assist the teacher in the classroom in administrative or other non-teaching functions.

I. Lay readers. Regular employment of persons to assist the teacher in reading and grading the written work of pupils.

J. Programmed instruction. The use of educational material so designed that each pupil works at his own pace through sequential steps, receiving immediate indications of the correctness of response he has given to programmed questions. May or may not involve mechanical devices or "machines".

K. Work experience programs. Programs in which students, while in school or on vacation, undertake employment, under school guidance, directly related to their educational courses.

L. Instructional television. Regularly scheduled in-class viewing of televised instruction, coordinated with instruction on the same material by the classroom teacher.

M. Flexible scheduling. Situation in which class size, length of class meetings, number and spacing of classes are varied according to an assessment of the nature of the subject, type of instruction, and ability and interest of students.

N. Modern math. Any of several mathematics curricula (and materials) stressing newer concepts and designed around the "structure of the discipline".

O. Foreign language in the elementary school. Regularly scheduled instruction in a foreign language (one or more times a week), in the grade-level span from 1 to 6.

P. Computer scheduling. Allocation of students to classes in the secondary school using an electronic computer.

Q. Curriculum council. A school-system-wide group of professional personnel which engages in curriculum planning and co-ordination.

R. i/t/a. The Initial Teaching Alphabet, a phonetically constant alphabet of convential letters and symbols used for early teaching of reading.

S. Open enrollment. Permission for pupils to attend a school building of their choice, even though it is not in their residential area.

T. 8 mm sound film. Movie film half the usual width, used in pupil-operated cartridge-loading projectors.

DIRECTIONS: In the first column, circle the "YES", "?", or "NO" to show whether the practice is being used in the school system, to the best of your knowledge. Use the "?" if you are not sure. If you circled "NO", skip to the next practice.

If you circled "Yes" or "?", go on across the row circling the answers that apply.

Title of practice	Being used in this system?	Does it affect you?	Are you using it directly?	Should it be continued in the system?
A. Independent study	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
B. Language laboratory	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
C. Non-graded classes	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
D. Multigraded classes	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
E. Schools-within-a-school	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
F. PSSC Physics	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
G. Team teaching	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
H. Teacher aides	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
I. Lay readers	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
J. Programmed instruction	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
K. Work Experience programs	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
L. Instructional television	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No

	Being used in this system?	Does it affect you?	Are you using it directly?	Should it be continued in the system?
M. Flexible scheduling	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
N. Modern math	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
O. Foreign language in the elementary school	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
P. Computer scheduling	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
Q. Curriculum council	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
R. i/t/a	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
S. Open enrolment	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No
T. 8 mm sound film	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No	Yes ? No

Now, look at the list of practices you have just gone through and select the one that affects you most in your work.

The name of the practice is____________________________

1. To what extent were you consulted in the decision that was made to start using the practice in your school system?

_____ To a great extent

_____ Quite a bit

_____ To some extent

_____ A little

_____ Not at all

2. To what extent do you think there was a clear educational need or problem in the system, which this practice would help to meet or resolve?

_____ To a great extent

_____ Quite a bit

_____ To some extent

_____ A little

_____ Not at all

3. How much do you know about how this practice is being used in the system?

_____ To a great extent

_____ Quite a bit

_____ To some extent

_____ A little

_____ Not at all

4. Are you involved in using this practice yourself? Yes __
No __

On a trial basis? Yes ___
No ___

On a regular, routine basis? Yes ___
No ___

5. How much has this practice been changed and modified during the time it has been tried out in the system?

_____ Not changed at all

_____ Changed a little

_____ Changed some

_____ Changed a lot

_____ Changed completely

6. Do you think that this practice is a good one?

_____ Very good

_____ Quite good

_____ Somewhat good

_____ Not too good

_____ Not too good at all

7. What do you think should be the future of this practice in the system?

_____ It should be increased a great deal.

_____ It should be increased.

_____ It should be carried on about as is.

_____ It should be decreased.

_____ It should be dropped from the system.

8. Have you, within the past year, had some idea for an innovation which you believe would improve the working of your school or school system (beyond your own classroom)?

_____ Yes

_____ No

9. What educational need or problem is there in the system which you feel your idea would help to meet or resolve? (Describe briefly).

10. To whom did you communicate your idea? (Check as many as apply.)

_____ Teacher in my building

_____ Teacher in another building

_____ My principal

_____ My department head

_____ Supervisor, coordinator, curriculum worker

_____ Student

_____ Superintendent

_____ Board member

_____ Central office administrator

_____ Parent

_____ Guidance or psychological service worker

_____ Other ______________________________________
(Please specify)

11. Was your idea tried out in your school or the school system?

_____ Yes

_____ It's being considered

_____ No, it was considered and turned down

_____ No, it was not even considered

_____ I don't know

The following instrument provides a means of gaining from the faculty some perception of how innovative they see their school.

INSTRUMENT # 26

PERCEPTIONS OF THE SCHOOL"S INNOVATIVENESS

How do you feel about this school's level of innovativeness in each of the following areas?

	HIGH	MIDDLE	LOW
1. Curriculum			
2. New jobs or duties (e.g., team teaching)			
3. Equipment, maintenance, TV, audio-visual			
4. Program evaluation, quality control			
5. Social relations between teachers and pupils			
6. New sharing of power or influence among more people			
7. Organizational structure			
8. Communication modes			

	HIGH	MIDDLE	LOW
9. New training for personnel			
10. New attitudes or norms			
11. New methods of solving problems or making decisions			
12. New committees, channels, conference groups, etc.			

13. Would you like to see your school innovating more in any of the above areas?

If yes, which ones?

What areas would you personally like to innovate in? Be as specific as possible!

What resources would you need to try the new practice?

Case Study

It is our experience that most school faculties are frustrated about not sharing resources more effectively. Most teachers believe their colleagues have a great deal of help to offer, but few know how to get the help. Effective change toward more sharing must involve an organizational change program. The following elementary school decided to take steps to diagnose its situation and to initiate steps toward improvement.

The Problem

Teachers at the Smith Elementary School felt isolated from one another. They wanted to talk more about their objectives and procedures. Unfortunately, no formal time could be set aside for this. There was considerable confusion about what the teachers really wanted to talk about.

Inquiry Questions

The following questions guided a small group of teachers and the principal in their investigation:

1. What are the major objectives toward which we are working in this school?
2. On what would we most like to work together as a staff?
3. How do staff members view the administration's position on the school's objectives?
4. What are the administration's objectives for the education of youngsters in this school?

Instruments Used

Instrument #23, "Educational Goals" was used. Each teacher filled out that instrument twice. He stated how he saw the school's objectives, and he described how he thought the principal saw them. The principal also filled out the instrument on how he saw the objectives. The committee of teachers which initiated this data collection felt that goal-setting and clearing up confusions around it would help the staff to set future agendas for sharing and problem solving.

Organization of the Data

The data were organized in two ways. First, the committee ranked the goals according to the votes of the teachers. The order that emerged was as follows:

First:	Goal #8,	"Improving the quality of student academic achievement at all levels. Eighty-nine percent of the teachers ranked this goal statement in the top four.
Second:	Goal #4	"Increasing children's motivation and desire to learn." Eighty-four per cent of the teachers ranked this goal statement in the top four.
Third:	Goal #10	"Improving learning opportunities for gifted or talented children." Sixty-three per cent of teachers ranked this in the top four.
Fourth:	Goal #2	"Improving attention to basic skills in the first three grades." Fifty-three per cent of teachers ranked this in the top four.

Other percentages of teachers' votes are described in Figure 4.

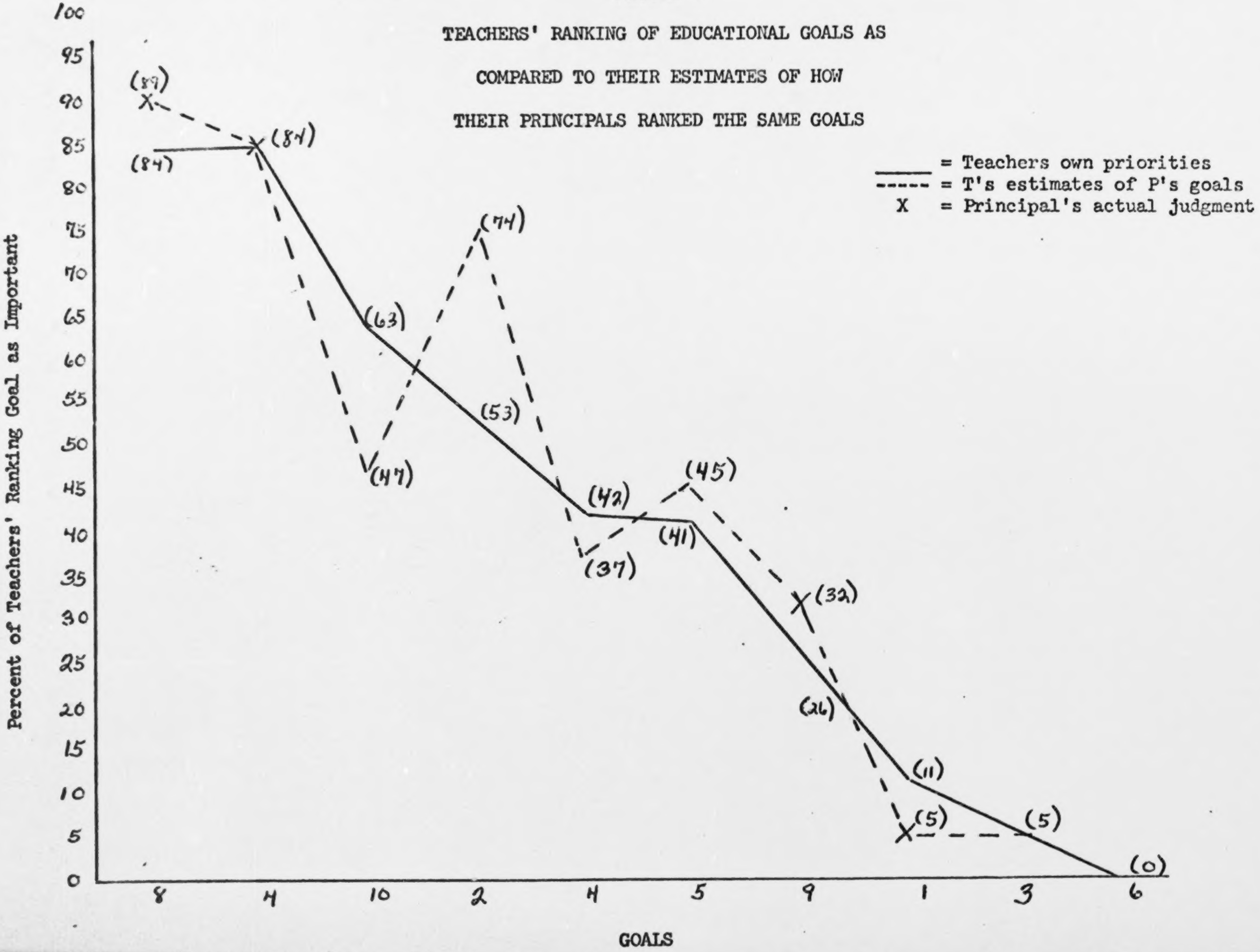
A second type of analysis involved comparing the teachers' actual rating and their estimates of the principal's responses with the principal's own goal priorities. Figure 4 also shows these data.

Findings

The "X's" in the Figure 4 data describe the goal statements that the principal rated in the top four. Notice that on Goals #8 and #4 the principal agrees with the teachers. But the principal's second two choices are quite different from those of the teachers. He felt that goal statements #9 and #1 were much more important than the teachers did. The principal was interested in improving children's adherence to moral, ethical, and partiotic standards and also in reducing the dropout rate. On the latter, only eleven per cent of teachers ranked that in the top four.

FIGURE 4

TEACHERS' RANKING OF EDUCATIONAL GOALS AS COMPARED TO THEIR ESTIMATES OF HOW THEIR PRINCIPALS RANKED THE SAME GOALS



Also, it was interesting to note how close or distant the teachers' estimates of the principal's ratings were from his actual ratings. In the case of goals #8 and #4, the teachers were accurate. They were not accurate on goals #9 and #1, however. The teachers estimated that the principal would rate #2, #10 and #5 most high after #8 and #4. Thirty-two per cent of teachers did think that the principal would rate #9 high, but only five per cent estimated #1 as high.

Possible Implications

The staff of teachers at Smith Elementary School were close together in their perceptions of the top goals (#8, #4, #10 and #2). Their principal, however, agreed with them only on #8 and #4. Perhaps some of the frustrations present on the staff could be accounted for by these differences. Difficulties in sharing or in finding time for more mutual stimulation might be alleviated if these differences were confronted and discussed at a staff meeting.

Furthermore, the teachers' perceptions of the principal's behavior need to be clarified. They think that he is more interested in goals #2 and #5 than they are and less interested in goals #10 and #7 than they are. These differences should also be discussed.

Action Alternatives

Some possible actions are as follows:

1. Present discrepancies at a staff meeting and have discussion on these differences.

2. Form teacher committees to work on sharing ideas for goals #8, #4, #10 and #2.

3. See if the principal's interest in reducing the dropout rate can be incorporated into teacher committees on goals #8, #4 and #2 as a special issue.

4. See if principal's interests in improving moral standards should lead to a separate committee including the principal or can be incorporated into another committee such as the one working on #4.

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IMPROVING THE PROFESSIONAL CLIMATE
OF YOUR SCHOOL

A Research Utilization and Action Program

by

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INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

Teachers and principals are becoming increasingly aware of the importance of the professional climate in their school and its effect upon their morale, their own personal effectiveness, and the quality of the educational program in their building. Those who have had experience as members of several school faculties or who have talked with members of other faculties know that the climates of different school buildings vary.

--In some buildings, teachers feel free to innovate; in others, they know it's best "not to rock the boat."

--In some buildings, teachers feel they have influence over program decisions; in others, they are expected to carry out decisions made primarily by the principal or by the Central Office.

--In some faculties, teachers share ideas about classroom teaching with each other; in other faculties, teachers keep their ideas to themselves.

--In some buildings, problems get worked on in a systematic way; in others, there is a lack of systematic problem solving.

A variety of these climate variables can be identified and measured.[1]

This set of programmed materials can help school staffs identify and measure the variables which effect the climate within schools, and they can help staffs plan ways to act toward change.

What Led to the Development of These Materials?

In 1965, there was initiated an inter-university project focused on the study of planned change in educational systems, called COPED (The Cooperative Project for Educational Development). COPED undertook to examine and compare alternative models of planned change. Five university-based teams, establishing collaborative research and action relationships with clusters of near-by school systems.[2]

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[1] Variable is used here to indicate any concept which may vary in intensity and/or frequency. Thus, we speak of problem solving as a variable because school faculties may do it more or less often and more or less adequately.

[2] Goodwin, Watson (Ed.). Concepts for Social Change, and Change in School Systems. Washington, D. C.: National Training Laboratories, 1967.

One activity was common to all the regional teams--together they developed a core set of instruments to measure variables affecting the capacity of the school system to manage change effectively (or, as the project put it, to become "self-renewing"). These instruments were administered in all of the twenty-four participating school districts, covering a sample of more than five thousand adults and seven thousand children. This core package of instruments was originally assembled as a "net" of measures of specific variables in which one or more COPED centers were particularly interested. This process led to a package of eighteen different sub-instruments for adults and nine for children; seventy-six variables for adults and twenty-four for children.

Seven clusters of variables were covered. These are briefly defined as follows:

1. Self Renewal. A school or a school system is self renewing to the extent that it continually reappraises goals, taking into consideration internal and external factors; evaluates its activities; and acts upon its evaluation. A self-renewing activity is any process initiated and continued by a school or school system for the purpose of strengthening, developing, or increasing its capacity to cope with its environment and achieve its goals.

2. Problem-Solving Adequacy. A school or school system solves problems adequately to the degree to which it uses skills of:

   a. scanning and problem identification,

   b. diagnostic procedures using available information and gathering what else is needed,

   c. generating solutions by using all available resources,

   d. discussion of alternative solutions,

   e. decision making,

   f. implementation,

   g. evaluation and re-cycling these skills,

   h. diffusion.

3. Influence. "Again" influence is the degree to which an individual or group can modify the attitudes and/or behavior of another person or of the school or school system. "Perceived" influence is the degree to which an individual or a group believes they can modify the attitudes and/or behavior of others.

4. Learning Atmosphere. A positive learning atmosphere is one in which children or adults; (a) want to learn, (b) are aware of internal and external needs, (c) attempt to use internal and external resources, and (d) support others who want to learn.

5. Innovativeness. Innovativeness is defined in the COPED project as "the number and variety of new and/or untried behaviors attempted by teachers."

6. Communication Adequacy. Communication adequacy is the degree to which within a classroom, building, school system, or community, information is transmitted between children, teachers, other adults, groups, roles, and community with minimal distortion.

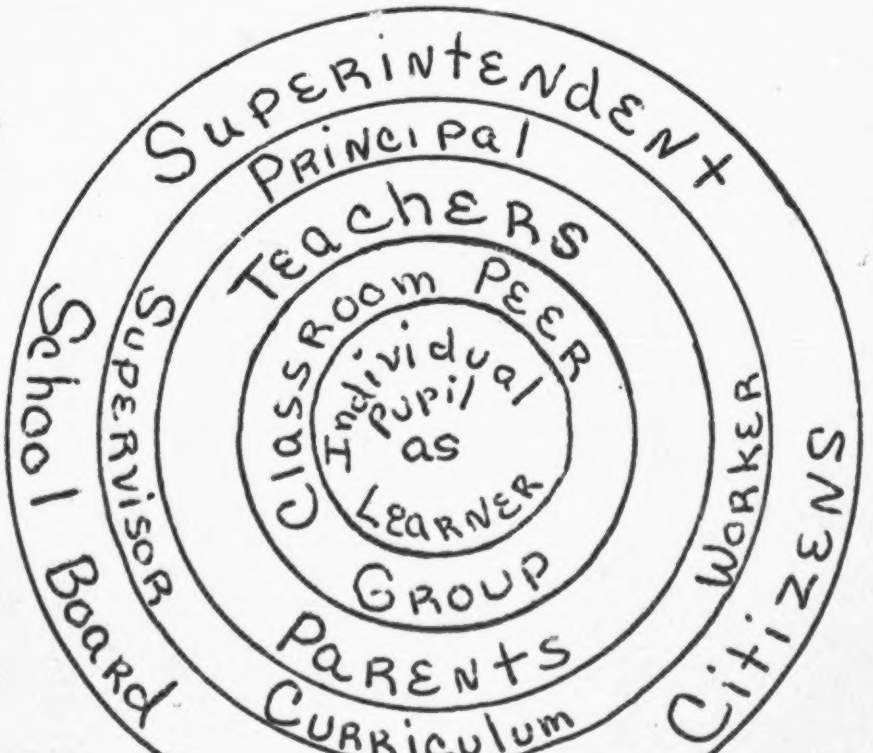
7. Relationship Adequacy. Relationship adequacy is defined in terms of the amounts of liking and trust which exist between persons and/or groups within the school or school system.

The internal structure of the school system includes five levels of human interaction that affect the quality of the learning experiences for children. Effort was made to gain measures of the above-listed variables at each of these different levels of interaction. One level is that of the individual pupil as learner. A second is the classroom peer group as a sub-culture of children. Third is the level of others who interact with pupils in creating learning experiences. They are termed direct workers with children, and could include persons such as teachers, parents, or peers. Fourth is the level of those who directly facilitate or inhibit the efforts of direct workers, such as principals, curriculum specialists, or other teachers. A fifth level is that of persons who influence the nature of the school system as an organization. This could include central administrators, such as the superintendent, or policy makers, such as the Board of Education.

These levels might best be shown in diagrammatic form:

FIGURE I

LEVELS OF HUMAN INTERACTION IN THE SCHOOL



Two things came from this large data collection effort which may be of particular value for school staffs who are interested in examining the climate within which their own professional work takes place. One is that the research instruments developed to measure the many variables in the study have proved to be very useful diagnostic tools. The other is that many of the research findings produced by an analysis of the data across many school buildings and school systems are most interesting and can be a stimulus to members of a local building staff to study their own climate.

We know from experience, however, that little effective change comes from merely examining a set of research generalizations, or from engaging in data collection efforts apart from a larger problem-solving process. A principal, for example, who suddenly becomes enthusiastic about measuring his staff's perception of him as an educational leader is not likely to lay the groundwork for improvement of the educational climate by asking all teachers to complete a questionnaire without preliminary involvement. A staff to which are presented without previous preparation some of the findings from the COPED project at a faculty meeting some Tuesday afternoon, is not likely to launch upon an extensive diagnosis of its own professional climate.

Overview of the Program

The materials which follow have been designed to provide the kind of support needed by faculty members as they engage in a series of in-service training activities.

The program consists of two separable parts: the Simulation and Data Bank Packet and the Problem-Solving Packet. The program may be used as it is designed and set forth here, or either the Simulation and Data Bank Packet or the Problem-Solving Packet could be used separately.

In part, this decision would be based on the degree of readiness for self-study of the group to be trained. If the group is characterized by a concern with its own effectiveness and a sensitivity to its own process, seems open to and aware of data about its performance, and generally seems ready to confront the many exciting, albeit sometimes painful, issues involved in undertaking the project of organizational growth and development, this group might begin with the problem-solving packet.

The packet may be used without an outside consultant. A group member, with prior review of the Leader's Manual, could serve as Training Leader for his group; or two or three members could act as a Training Committee. Several training alternatives and sequences are identified. The Training Leader or Training Committee should review these alternatives and select those activities which seem most relevant and feasible for the group.

An entire school faculty might launch the program during an in-service training day; or they might chose to devote an initial set of three after school faculty meetings to the introductory sessions. A group of school administrators could use the simulation and data bank packet collectively and support the individual efforts of each other in collecting and analyzing their own data for the problem-solving portion of the program. A Department Chairman could use the program as a means of supporting his department members' consideration of departmental changes. A Superintendent could lead the principals in his system through these training experiences, thereby allowing each principal experience with the program before deciding whether or not it would be useful for his own faculty.

The training program could be used as a starting point for developing a faculty's self-designed change project. As the start-up event for a series of in-service training sessions, it could lead into a process of self-inquiry for a faculty group: What's going on in our school? Are there changes we would like to make?

As indicated previously, either part of the program can be used separately. The Simulation and Data Bank Packet is developed around data descriptive of COPED-associated schools and provides training in utilization of data and derivation of action implications arising from these data. Use of this portion of the program allows the review of data from school groups with demographic features which parallel and/or contrast with the school situation of the group in training. Experience is afforded with analytic questions such as, What's going on in this system? What factors maintain this situation? What changes would we recommend to the system? How might these changes be effected?

The Simulation and Data Bank Packet has been developed with several learning gains in mind. It is hoped that a school staff might be alerted to the potential utility of episodic data and the possibility of translating these data into testable inferences. The Simulation and Data Bank Packet offers experience and training in the utilization of data for the purposes of inference development as well as inference testing. Frequently school groups seem lacking in motivation to change simply because they are deprived of standards or levels of comparison; this is, they have little or no information about what life is like in other school situations. Such comparative information may empower a group not only to identify those aspects of its own life which it values and wishes to protect, but to pinpoint facets of its life which it wishes to alter and which may realistically be subject to change. The simple awareness that the status quo elsewhere is different may relieve the paralyzing conviction that efforts to change are hopeless. The Data Bank, consisting of real-life data from COPED schools, provides such comparative information.

The Problem-Solving section of the Research Utilization and Action Program guides the faculty members in diagnosis of their own situation

(What's with us? What's going on in our school?), value clarification (How do we feel about this? What facets of our situation would we wish to change?), problem definition (What change will we work toward? What resistances do we expect to encounter in bringing about this change?), and action design (What succession of acts will move us toward our goal? Who will be responsible for these actions? What critical landmarks will we look for to determine the direction and extent of our change efforts?).

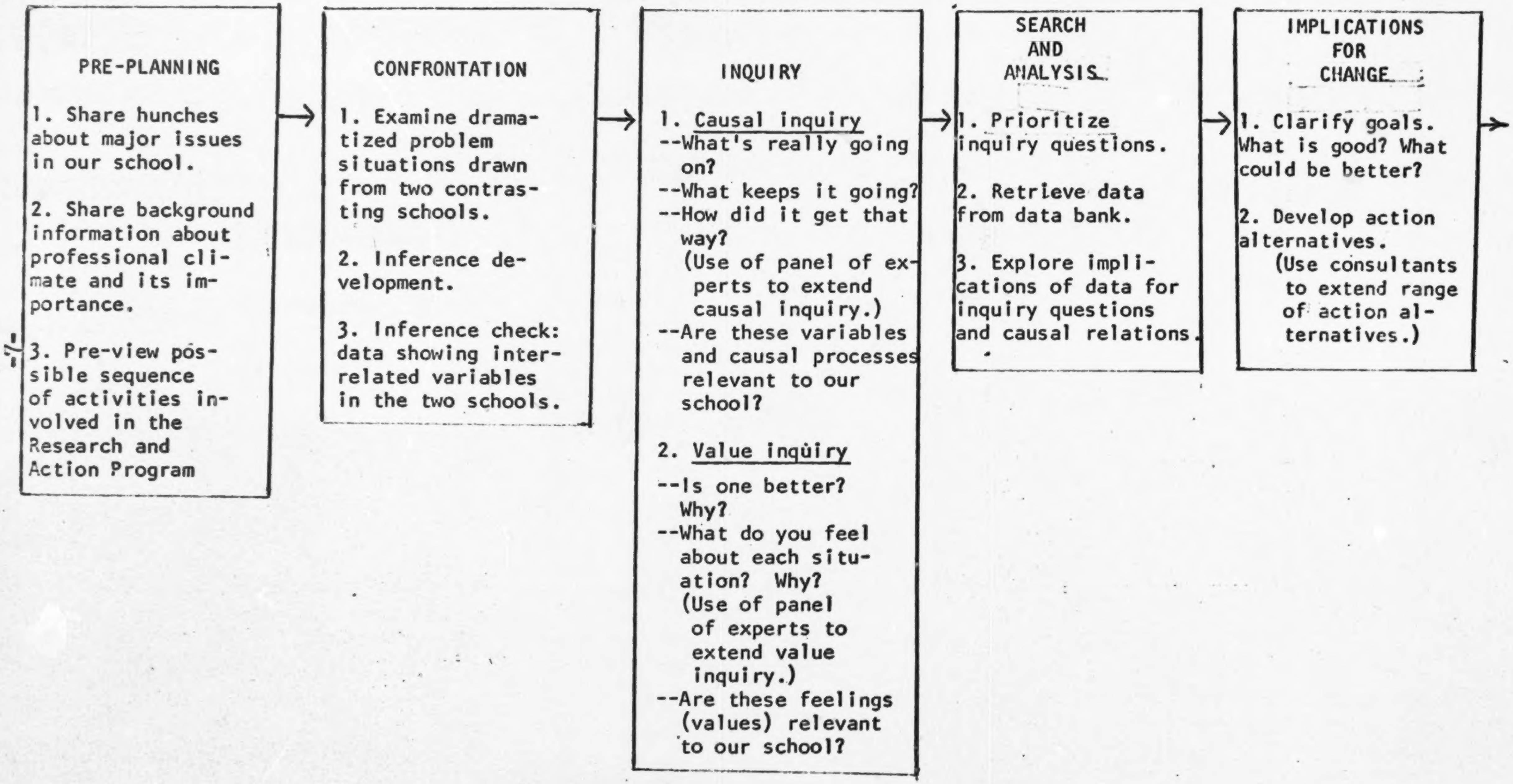
While the Simulation and Data Bank Packet may involve the faculty for one to several brief sessions, the Problem Solving section could stimulate the development of a process that could extend for an entire year. If the group really becomes serious about diagnosing its own professional climate and undertakes to institute some changes, a portion of each faculty meeting could easily be devoted to the project throughout the year. The Problem Solving section is designed to provide a maximum of flexibility so that each faculty group may draw from it those resources that are most pertinent to the goals they may have set for themselves.

Figure III gives a diagrammatic overview of the problem-solving process supported by the materials in this section.

FIGURE II

MODEL OF RESEARCH UTILIZATION AND ACTION PROGRAM

A. Simulation and Data Bank



PRE-PLANNING

1. Share hunches about major issues in our school.

2. Share background information about professional climate and its importance.

3. Pre-view possible sequence of activities involved in the Research and Action Program

CONFRONTATION

1. Examine dramatized problem situations drawn from two contrasting schools.

2. Inference development.

3. Inference check: data showing interrelated variables in the two schools.

INQUIRY

1. Causal inquiry
--What's really going on?
--What keeps it going?
--How did it get that way?
(Use of panel of experts to extend causal inquiry.)
--Are these variables and causal processes relevant to our school?

2. Value inquiry
--Is one better? Why?
--What do you feel about each situation? Why?
(Use of panel of experts to extend value inquiry.)
--Are these feelings (values) relevant to our school?

SEARCH AND ANALYSIS

1. Prioritize inquiry questions.

2. Retrieve data from data bank.

3. Explore implications of data for inquiry questions and causal relations.

IMPLICATIONS FOR CHANGE

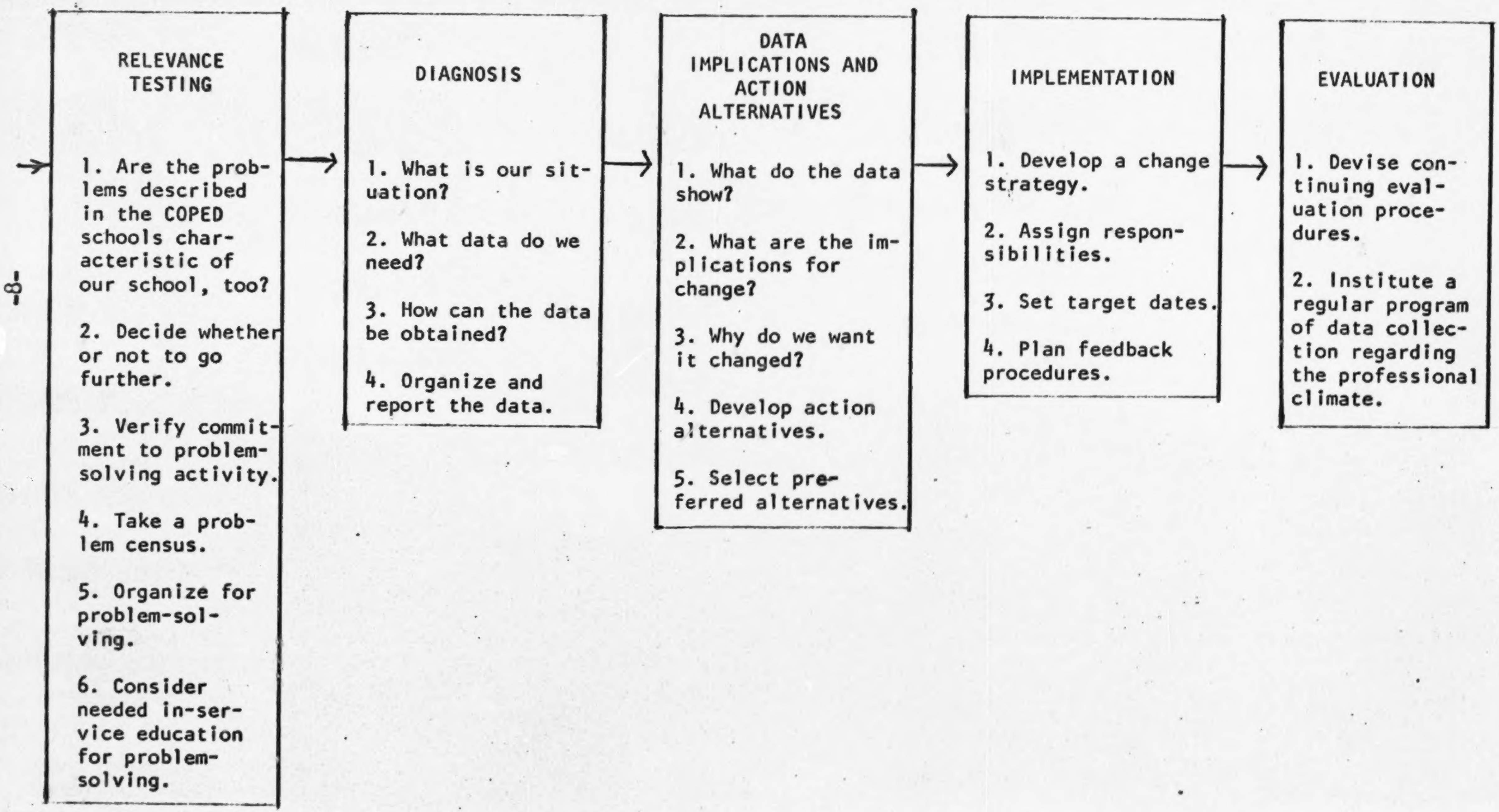
1. Clarify goals. What is good? What could be better?

2. Develop action alternatives.
(Use consultants to extend range of action alternatives.)

FIGURE III

MODEL OF RESEARCH UTILIZATION AND ACTION PROGRAM

B. Problem Solving



RELEVANCE TESTING

1. Are the problems described in the COPED schools characteristic of our school, too?
2. Decide whether or not to go further.
3. Verify commitment to problem-solving activity.
4. Take a problem census.
5. Organize for problem-solving.
6. Consider needed in-service education for problem-solving.

DIAGNOSIS

1. What is our situation?
2. What data do we need?
3. How can the data be obtained?
4. Organize and report the data.

DATA IMPLICATIONS AND ACTION ALTERNATIVES

1. What do the data show?
2. What are the implications for change?
3. Why do we want it changed?
4. Develop action alternatives.
5. Select preferred alternatives.

IMPLEMENTATION

1. Develop a change strategy.
2. Assign responsibilities.
3. Set target dates.
4. Plan feedback procedures.

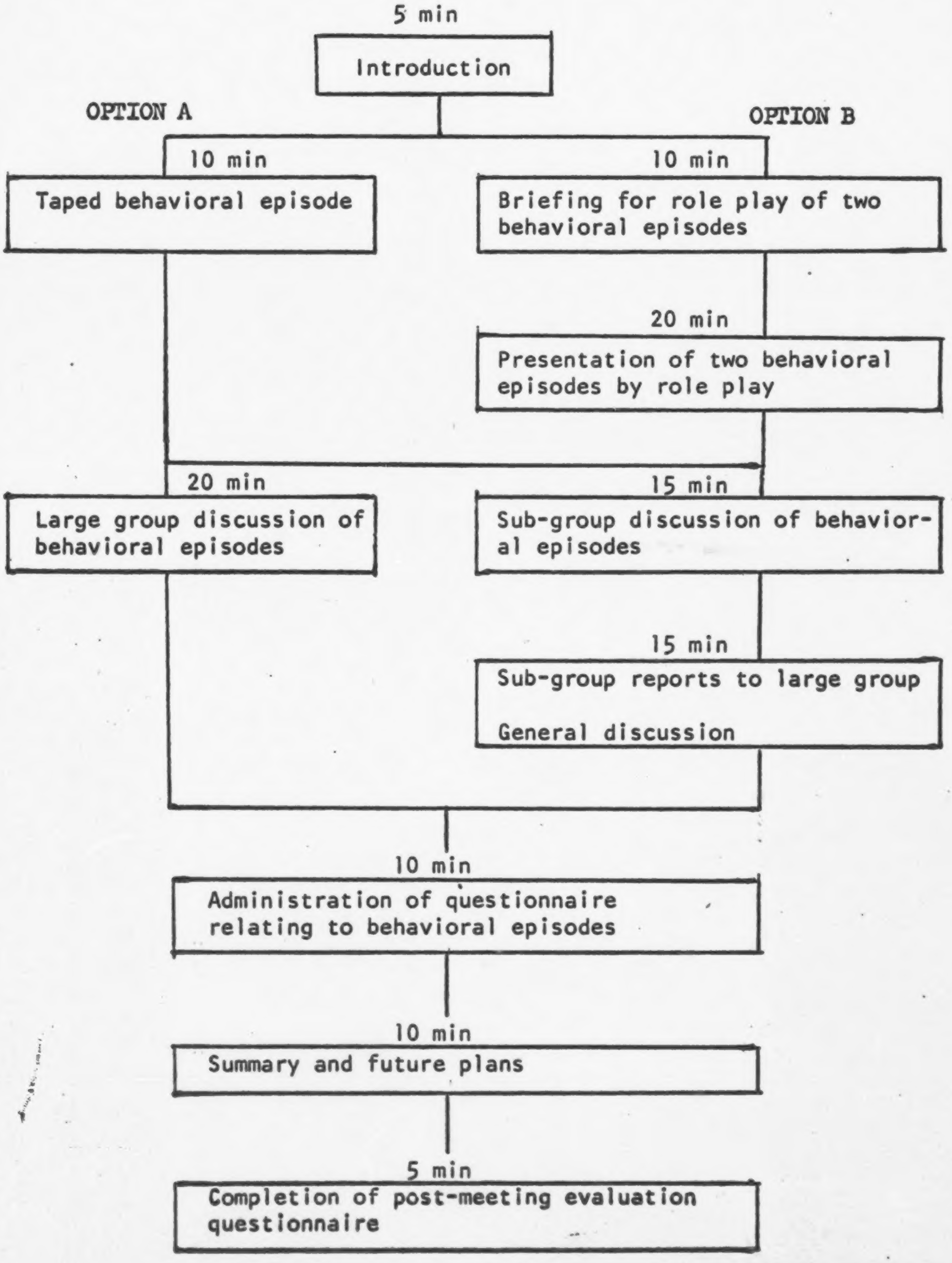
EVALUATION

1. Devise continuing evaluation procedures.
2. Institute a regular program of data collection regarding the professional climate.

SESSION 1

II. Simulation and Data Bank

Sequence of Events


5 min
Introduction
OPTION A
OPTION B
10 min
Taped behavioral episode
10 min
Briefing for role play of two behavioral episodes
20 min
Presentation of two behavioral episodes by role play
20 min
Large group discussion of behavioral episodes
15 min
Sub-group discussion of behavioral episodes
15 min
Sub-group reports to large group
General discussion
10 min
Administration of questionnaire relating to behavioral episodes
10 min
Summary and future plans
5 min
Completion of post-meeting evaluation questionnaire

The diagram depicts the sequence of events included in Session 1 and lists the suggested time needed to complete each activity. The description of each activity in the boxes corresponds to the heading for each new activity described in the text of this manual for Session 1. It is possible, after reading the description of each activity, to refer to the diagram to gain an estimate of the amount of time needed. There are four possible combinations of activities which the Leader may follow with a slight variation in time needed, ranging from one hour to one and one-half hours. They are:

A

Introduction	5 min
Taped behavioral episodes	10 min
Large group discussion	20 min
Administration of questionnaires	10 min
Summary and future plans	10 min
Completion of evaluation	5 min
	60 min

B

Introduction	5 min
Taped behavioral episodes	10 min
Sub-group discussion	15 min
Large group discussion	15 min
Administration of questionnaires	10 min
Summary and future plans	10 min
Completion of evaluation	5 min
	70 min

C

Introduction	5 min
Briefing for role play	10 min
Role play	20 min
Large group discussion	20 min
Administration of questionnaires	10 min
Summary and future plans	10 min
Completion of evaluation	5 min
	80 min

D

Introduction	5 min
Briefing for role play	10 min
Role play	20 min
Sub-group discussion	15 min
Large group discussion	15 min
Administration of questionnaires	10 min
Completion of evaluation	5 min
	90 min

Objectives

The three major foci of Session 1 will be to: 1) illustrate dramatically an aspect of what's meant by the professional climate of a school building, 2) arouse the interest of the participants by enabling them to identify with a typical day-to-day problem, and 3) introduce the concept that data can be obtained about professional climate variables.

Materials Needed for Session 1

(The use and nature of these materials will be explained in this manual in the description for Session 1.)

Materials	
1. Taped introduction (optional)	Provided with package
2. Taped episodes, or	Provided with package
(2.a.) Briefing sheets for role play	Four sheets of each role play needed for the players--copies of each in this manual
3. Enough copies of Questionnaire about School A and School B for each participant to fill out.	A copy of the Questionnaire can be found on page 27-28.
4. Evaluation forms--enough copies for each participant to fill out.	A copy of the form is on page 30.
5. One or two copies of Figures 1 and 2 for sub-group work on questionnaires	See Figure 1 and 2 on pages 32-33.

Introduction

The purpose of the introduction is to briefly acquaint the participants with the plans, not only for Session 1, but for the total program as it may be used in your school. The introduction should not last more than 5 minutes. Time will be allowed at the end of the first session for participants to explore further questions they may have about the aims of the program and to offer some evaluation of their experience.

If the Leader feels uncomfortable about handling the introduction himself, he may play the recorded introduction provided with the package, or read the transcript of the taped introduction printed below without playing the tape. Instead, the leader may prefer to put the introduction in his own words, in which case he may use the outline provided here and the text of the recorded introduction as guidelines. Remember to keep the introduction brief so that the group may become involved in the more active part of the sessions as quickly as possible.

Text of Taped Introduction	Outline for Oral Introduction
This program is aimed at studying the professional climate of school buildings, factors which make up this climate, and some of the alternatives for changing this climate when change is felt to be needed. The program starts with those aspects of building climate having to do with teacher attitudes and teacher relationships. It is recognized, of course, that the climate of a school is made up of other relationships, such as teacher-pupil interactions. The school building is part of the larger climate of the total school system which will certainly contribute to that building's professional climate. These other phases of climate will undoubtedly be focused upon later. Teacher attitudes and relationships constitute the "point of entry."	I. Program is directed toward study of professional climate. A. Specifically, teacher relationships and attitudes
We know from studies in industry that people's feelings and relationships affect working efficiency and productivity. This also applies to school building faculties.	II. Importance of professional climate A. Affects working efficiency and productivity
There are several aspects to the study of a building's climate. First, factors that define or make up the professional climate should be identified. Secondly, in other words, it is important to determine if those factors can be measured. We raise the question, "Can data be gathered about those factors to find out what kind of climate we have in a given building?" Next, the data which have been gathered about individual factors need to be related to the overall question of climate; that is, what affects what? For example, one factor that affects climate might be peer norms about committee work--What are some of the feelings among staff members toward the value of expending energy to serve on committees and how do these norms affect the usefulness or effectiveness of	III. Aspects of studying climate A. What factors make up climate? B. Can they be measured? C. How can data about specific factors be related to over-all climate? 1. What affects what? 2. Example of a factor that affects climate--peer norms regarding committee work

those committees? Finally, given our findings about a particular building climate, we must ask ourselves, so what? Do we think there are some aspects of this climate that should be changed? If this were our building, could it be changed through our own efforts?

The purpose of this program is to guide the staff through an exploration of these aspects of the study of climate, and to provide some of the resource materials participants would need for this study.

The plan of this program includes two major parts. The first part, comprised of five sessions, will provide a brief sequence using data from two schools to illustrate climate differences and problems. It is felt that this is an easier way to start than having participants immediately begin to grapple with the reality of their own problems. This will lead into the second part, or phase, of the program, involving participants in problem-solving activities based on their own building setting.

It is recognized that nothing will happen unless participants see the program's purpose and think it worthwhile. It is suggested that during the course of the first five sessions participants keep asking themselves if this process relates to their own building climate; if they get any ideas about what this could mean for diagnosing and effecting changes in their own situation. Then at the conclusion of Session V, participants will have an opportunity to decide whether or not they want to get involved in a more intensive study of their own climate and wish to continue with the second major phase of this program.

D. What are our values about this climate?

    1. Should it be changed?

    2. Can staff change climate through own efforts.

IV. Program will guide participants through aspects of climate study

    A. First phase or part: five sessions studying climate and data from two schools

    B. Second phase or part will deal with problem solving in participants' own setting

V. To be effective, participants must think program worthwhile

    A. During first phase, consider how this relates to their climate

    B. Do they want more intensive study of own climate, and to continue into second phase?

The Behavioral Episodes

Taped Episodes or Role Play?

The behavioral episodes may be presented in one of two ways: the recorded episodes which come as a part of this package may be presented to the group by playing them on the tape recorder, or the participants may be directly involved in the production of a live role play. The Leader should review the text of the taped episodes which follow, and the content of the briefing sheets for the role play, beginning on page 17, to determine which option might work more effectively with his group. Time factors may be a consideration in this decision since the session will be slightly longer if the live role play is used.

Use of the Taped Episodes

If the Leader elects to use the tapes, it is necessary to provide some guidelines to alert participants as to what they might listen for while the tapes are being played. He might explain that the group is about to hear episodes depicting teacher behavior in two schools. Following the tapes, there will be a discussion on what was happening in each episode. Questions for discussion that participants might be anticipating while listening to the tapes are: "Is this a valid issue or situation? Can I describe the procedures that are being observed to handle the problem in each setting? How do I feel about what is happening in each episode?" If the group is a large one, it is suggested that the Leader assign each one of the above questions to a separate sub-group prior to the tape-playing in order to facilitate the discussion afterward.

Production of Role Played Episodes

If the live role play is selected as a means of presenting the behavior episodes, the Leader will need to enlist the aid of eight role players. He can do this before the training session begins, and should give each role player one of the role-briefing sheets included in this packet. There are four role-briefing sheets for School A and four for School B. The role players for each school will need a five-minute preparatory period in which they can become familiar with each other's roles and check to see that each understands the situation in the same way. Each briefing sheet includes two parts: a) the situation description (all School A players have one situation; all School B players another) and b) the role description (each player is given a different role).

If the Leader is unable to make prior arrangements with the role players, he may recruit them at the meeting, and should allow them 10 minutes to study their briefing sheets and clarify the situation and each other's roles.

When the role players are ready, the Leader should tell the group that they are going to observe a brief simulated episode from two schools. The audience should observe these episodes with a view to the following questions: "Is this a valid situation or issue? Can I describe the procedures that are being used to handle the problem in each school? How do I feel about what is happening in each episode?" If it is a large group, the Leader may feel it wise to assign sub-groups, each to consider one of the three questions above. The questions will be discussed following the role play.

The Leader should then start the session by reading the situational description for School B and allowing the role players to play out the episode. Without discussion, the Leader should turn the group's attention to School A by reading the situational description and asking the School A role players to present their episode. (School B is presented before School A because it is the less positive situation.)

Role Play Briefing Sheets:

School B

Situation: About one-third of the faculty and the principal have been at the suburban elementary school since it opened fifteen years ago. There is fairly high turn-over of personnel among the rest of the faculty. Sally is a new teacher. Bob has been at the school 15 years. Emily and Chuck have been at the school three or four years.

This episode includes two "scenes."

Scene 1: Bob, Sally, Emily and Chuck are in the faculty lounge after school.

Scene 2: Faculty meeting. The principal is opening the meeting with the first item on the agenda. (Only Emily and Mr. Barr, the principal, have speaking parts in this scene.)

School B

Emily

You've pretty much given up on the idea of changing most things at this school. But there has been a growing discontent with you as with many other teachers over the way extra duties are assigned. There seems to be no policy governing these assignments which would insure an equitable assignment of such duties among the teachers. You've had lunchroom duty for several semesters, now, and you know of some teachers who have never had it.

For some time, it's been your impression and hope that this question would be discussed at the faculty meeting; but it never seems to get on the agenda. Your desperation grows as you see the agenda for tomorrow's meeting and note the omission, once more, of this topic. You know that Chuck feels this way also.

You begin this episode by exploding about the faculty meeting agenda. The others begin to suggest that you bring up the subject yourself in the meeting. At first, this idea seems ridiculous, but gradually you begin to think that you've nothing to lose by attempting this. Actually, you're so angry with the principal that the idea of blurting out a proposed agenda change and possibly upsetting the usually rigid routine of the meetings appeals to you. You think others may support you. In Scene 1, you look to Chuck for support.

In Scene, as Mr. Barr, the principal, tries to call the meeting to order and initiate his agenda, you make a real effort to change the agenda. No other suggested agenda item seems nearly as important to you as this.

Chuck

You've really "given up" at this school, and seldom take the trouble to say anything at all to other teachers. When you're in the faculty lounge, you seldom speak unless spoken to, and then seldom care to reply with any interest or enthusiasm. Your whole outlook is one of discouragement, detachment, and hopeless disinterest.

You can't understand why Emily is so upset about lunchroom duty.... that's a minor matter compared to other things. You haven't even been able to get enough textbooks for your classes, but you refuse to let even that bother you.

Sally

You're a new teacher. The attitude of some of the older teachers at this school puzzles you: they frequently complain about various things, but they don't seem to do anything about them.

As Emily talks about lunchroom duty, you feel that she should bring the topic up herself in the faculty meeting. You keep encouraging her to do this.

School B

Bob

You're an "old-timer" at this school and have learned to get along by not rocking the boat. You suppose things could be better in the school as a whole, but you see to it that things in your own classroom go the way you want them and so you don't let yourself get worked up about anything else. On the whole, you're left alone, and that's the important thing.

You have a positive attitude toward the principal, the school, other teachers and students.

You're amazed that Emily would be upset about lunchroom duty. She talks about it; you try to convince her that she ought to learn to live with it because she won't be able to change it. You're certain the principal won't allow such an item to appear on the faculty meeting agenda.

Mr. Barr

You are the principal of this school. You are conscientious about your responsibility to keep the school running smoothly. You don't particularly like controversy. So when Emily suggests at faculty meeting that a controversial item like lunch room duty be taken up for immediate discussion, you maneuver her into coming in to see you in your office to talk about it so that you can move along with your agenda for the faculty meeting. You have planned to take up several important administrative items with the staff that shouldn't be delayed.

School A

Situation: As usual, on the day before a faculty meeting, in this suburban elementary school, teachers find in their boxes the meeting agenda as proposed by the principal and the agenda committee. The setting of this incident is the teachers' lounge; the time is right after school. Small groups of teachers frequently gather here at this time to relax over a cup of coffee or a coke. The Faculty Meeting Committee meets twice monthly to develop the faculty meeting agenda. The Committee consists of two teachers, elected each year by the faculty and the principal.

Jerry

You've really "had it" today: you're tired. You're glad to see Mary and Lucille come in, and you offer them a cup of coffee. Lucille's concern over lunchroom duty surprises you; you didn't know this bothered her. You feel that since it does, it would be a good idea to discuss it in the faculty meeting. You encourage Mary to try to get it on the agenda.

Mary

You're a member of the Faculty Meeting Committee. The Committee has already completed the proposed agenda for tomorrow's meeting. Nevertheless, on hearing how Lucille and a few others feel about duty assignments, you decide that the principal would want to be made aware of these concerns and would want to try to clarify the assignment policy. If, after a brief discussion tomorrow, more time seems needed, you are confident he will give the subject high priority at the next meeting. Best of all: it won't end here. If the policy (or lack of it) needs review and revision, appropriate action will be taken.

You offer to ask the Committee to include initial review of the question on the agenda for tomorrow's meeting.

Lucille

You like most things about this school and faculty. There is one thing, however, that bothers you a great deal: the assignment of lunchroom duty to teachers. Aside from feeling that such duties are a misuse of teacher time and energy, you've never understood how these assignments are distributed among the faculty. You are angry that you have had lunchroom duty several times, and some teachers have never had it. You know of other faculty members who feel the same way about this.

You wish very much this whole thing could be discussed in the faculty meeting; none of the topics on the agenda for tomorrow's meeting seems as important to you as this issue.

You've just gotten the faculty meeting agenda from your box. None of the topics on the agenda seems as important to you as this issue. You wish very much this whole thing could be discussed in the faculty meeting.

Bill (The Principal)

The principal of School B, Bill, regularly holds conferences with his teachers just to see how things are going and to keep in touch with their interests, plans, and concerns. He is currently having a conference with Paula, a teacher new to the faculty this year. She did have two years prior experience in another building.

You are interested in gaining from her how it feels to be a new teacher in this building--what kind of adjustment she has made, and what kinds of insights she has about the climate of the building.

Paula

You are a new teacher in this building as of last September, although you have had two years experience in another building. Now, after four months, you are pleased that Bill, the principal, has been interested in sitting down with you just to talk about how it feels to be a new teacher in this staff. You feel very excited about the kinds of working relationships that exist. You like the faculty meetings at 8:00 to 8:30 each morning, rather than after school. Teachers have a lot of responsibility for managing those meetings, although the principal and assistant principal participate actively and supportively. You feel that new ideas which teachers come up with are given a sympathetic hearing by colleagues and administration.

You have been given the opportunity to serve on a couple of committees, one on schedule revision, and another on the camping program. You see these committees as being an excellent vehicle for staff to take initiative and to be involved in decision making, so you enjoy the assignment even though it does take time. You recognize that all committee work doesn't go smoothly, particularly when one teacher is domineering and tries to bulldoze her ideas through. Some other staff members take the attitude of not caring enough to put energy into committee work. You don't agree with this point of view, and feel that the faculty, by and large, doesn't either.

You find the faculty warm and supportive. You feel comfortable--free to ask your colleagues substantive questions, like, "What do you think about this idea for a new unit for my kids?", or "Do you think I could try out a different grading system for my class instead of the A B C's?" and you expect to get honest answers.

mg

Transcript of the Taped Episode

"Lunchroom Duty--School B"

NARRATOR: Let's look in one an incident that occurred in a school that may have been a good deal like yours or mine. Maybe we can get some clues about the kind of professional climate that exists in this school. We'll call it "School B."

BOB: Well! I'm glad that period is over! I have a hard time with those youngsters the last period of the day.

SALLY: Yeah, mine give me a rough time, too.

BOB: Matter of fact, I'm glad the whole day's over.

EMILY: It's not over. We still have a faculty meeting. Have you seen the agenda today? It really bugs me.

SALLY: What's the matter with it?

EMILY: Well the one thing that really matters at this school isn't on it again. It wasn't on it last time. It will never be on it.

BOB: What's that?

EMILY: Lunchroom duty.

BOB: Lunchroom duty!

EMILY: That man will never change his policy about lunchroom duty.

SALLY: Are you the only person that's bothered about lunchroom duty? I'll bet everybody who's got it wants to do something about it. . .

EMILY: Chuck gets sort of mad about it sometimes. Don't you Chuck?

CHUCK: I guess I don't really care. I've had a book order in for two or three years now, and they still aren't here. So why do you get so upset about lunchroom duty?

SALLY: I don't know what you expected anyway, Emily. He always sets the agendas for the meetings.

BOB: It is almost impossible to get things on the agenda, isn't it?

EMILY: I don't care about the agenda, really. It's just this lunchroom duty. He can do anything else in his dumb faculty meetings he wants to. Well, don't just sit there and giggle at me.

SALLY: Well, I think you should do something about it, if you're so worked up.

EMILY: Oh, after you've been around here a while, you'll find out how hopeless something like that is. It just doesn't do any good. You get the run-around.

BOB: Yeah, after you have been around a little while you'll recognize that you'll kind of have to give with the punches.

EMILY: It's hopeless.

BOB: Yeah, I think you ought to forget it.

SALLY: Well, if you can't talk to the principal, why don't you try bringing it up at the faculty meeting?

EMILY: Just stand up and talk--what an idea! Honestly, I'd just get shot down...Doggone it! I think I'll do that. I'll just interrupt the faculty meeting and ask for a change in the agenda.

BOB: This ought to be fun!

EMILY: Will you support me? (Bob laughs.) Well, will you?

NARRATOR: Later, the principal calls the faculty meeting to order...

CHUCK: Well, you got the agendas in the mailbox this afternoon, and ah...

EMILY: Mr. Barr, excuse me, but I'd like to suggest that there be an alteration to this agenda. As you know, the issue of lunchroom duty has been a sore one with many of us. And I'd like very much to talk about this at the faculty meeting.

MR. BARR: (Principal) I think it probably is an issue that some time we'll have to talk about, and I would like to do that, but I think it's important that tonight we get at this agenda. There are several important things on here that I need to get some information out to you about. So why don't you stop by my office sometime and see if maybe we can talk about your problem.

EMILY: Well, I'd really like to talk about it today. In this faculty meeting. I think there are several of us here who feel just as strongly as I.

MR. BARR: Well, I just don't think that tonight is the appropriate time for this kind of thing. Ah..., I guess I'll just have to ask you to let us go on with the agenda, and....I'm sure that most of the faculty would agree with me. Isn't that right?

"Lunchroom Duty--School A"

NARRATOR: Now let's listen to a conversation among some teachers in a building where there is a different kind of professional atmosphere. We'll call it "School A." The setting, again, is in the teachers' lounge; the time, 3:15.

JERRY: I could go for a cup of coffee! How about you, Mary?

MARY: Good idea! It's been a hard day--I'm glad it's over.

LUCILLE: Thank goodness we don't have our faculty meetings at the end of the day. I see we have the agenda for tomorrow's morning meeting in our boxes...(Read agenda to self.) Doggone it! I wish we could get some discussion of lunchroom duty.

JERRY: Lunchroom duty!

LUCILLE: Yeah. I'm sick and tired of getting stuck with lunchroom duty. Why can't we rotate it around more? Or better yet, let's get some parents to supervise it.

JERRY: Seems to me it would be a good idea to discuss it. Why don't we get it on the agenda?

LUCILLE: It's pretty late for that, isn't it?

MARY: No, I don't think so. I believe we can work it in for tomorrow.

LUCILLE: What do you mean...Oh, I forgot! You're chairman of the Agenda Committee, Mary! Well, great! Let's put it on!

MARY: O. K. If we find it's going to take a lot of discussion, we may only have time enough to just get an idea of what the problem is and what next steps are needed...

NARRATOR: Let's get a different sample of the kind of atmosphere that is characteristic of Building A. We'll listen in on a conference that the principal is having with one of the teachers who is new to the building this year. The principal regularly holds conferences with each faculty member during the course of the year.

BILL: (Principal) Well, Paula, I'm particularly interested in gaining your perspective as to how it feels to be a new teacher around here.

PAULA: (Teacher) Well, let me talk mainly as a faculty member rather than as a teacher in the classroom, although certainly I enjoy the children. One thing that I really enjoy are the faculty meetings that we have from 8:00 to 8:30 each morning. The discussions are open; the administrators take an interest in coming and taking part in the discussion. I feel that this kind of communication is very important.

Another thing I like is the involvement of the faculty in the development of new ideas, and in decision making about them. One aspect of this kind of faculty involvement is committee work. I personally feel that these committees are very important, both to us as teachers, and to the school. They help us to be free to do what we feel is important.

BILL: I thought teachers didn't care much for committee work!

PAULA: Well, there are some problems. On these committees, occasionally, you'll get a teacher who is very domineering. They simply say, this is the way we're going to do it, and regardless of whether other people feel like going along or not, they just sort of railroad through their own program. That sort of disturbs me.

Also, we have a second kind of person who says, "I simply don't care. I feel that there is no way for me to influence what's going on here; and I'm not going to bother to come to committee meetings." This kind of person would never take on a chairmanship, because, let's face it, that's a little extra work! So these two types of people can be obstacles to faculty functioning.

However, I can say, quite confidently, I feel the majority of the faculty takes interest in what's going on; secondly, I feel they can do something about it; and thirdly, will spend the time it takes to work on a committee.

BILL: Well, I'm awfully glad to get your perceptions of this. Of course, I'm aware that we have differences in our faculty; that there are these points of view. In general, you're saying that you feel the faculty attitude toward committee work is far more supportive than negative...

PAULA: I would say so. You know, it's really fun to work here. I've made a lot of social acquaintances. Really, I have a lot of friends on the faculty. I'm at the point now where I feel with most faculty members I can simple sit down and say, "Well, what do you think about this idea for a new unit in the classroom?" or "What do you think about evaluation--should we use grades?" and I'll get an honest answer. I really appreciate that.

BILL: Well, I'm glad we have that kind of sharing of ideas among our staff. Now, to shift the focus a bit, what are some of the things you...(fade out).

Discussion of Behavioral Episodes

When the tapes or the role plays of both episodes (whichever was chosen) have been completed, the Leader may organize the discussion in one of the following ways:

1. He may initiate a total group discussion on one of the tapes or role plays;

2. He may ask the group to reflect for a few minutes on what they observed, and then begin the discussion; or,

3. He may assign sub-groups to discuss among themselves what they observed and then report to the total group. This may be the choice if the group is large, or if the Leader has already designated sub-groups prior to the taped episodes or role plays.

The Leader should keep the discussion focused on the content of the taped episodes (or the role plays) with reference to the questions raised prior to the episodes. It is not necessary here to draw inferences about the total climate of each school. That will come in a later session. Such questions as "How do the teachers of School A or School B feel about their principal?" should be avoided at this point to keep the discussion limited to what went on in the taped episodes (or role plays). If participants need to be refreshed on specific details of the episodes they observed, the Leader may refer to the text of the recorded episodes or the role play briefing sheets contained in this manual, whichever is relevant.

Questionnaire Completion

When discussion of the taped episodes (or the role plays) is completed, the Questionnaire on pages 27-28 should be distributed to the group. (The Leader should have duplicated enough copies prior to this session so that there is one copy per participant.) The Questionnaire contains four questions that might give clues about the professional climate in a school building, specifically about its building faculty meetings. Participants are asked to answer each of these questions in terms of how they think the teachers in School A and School B would feel about each item. The purpose here is to stimulate participants to think about the kinds of questions that can be asked about a school's climate, especially in terms of an aspect of that climate that they have just seen dramatized.

The Leader should ask the participants to follow the instructions on the Qeustionnaire, complete the questions and return the form during Session 1. Responses are to be tallied, and fed back to participants during the next session (Session 2). Suggestions for reporting the results will be found at the end of this section for Session 1.

Questionnaire

For each question, please circle the number above the statement that you feel most closely reflects how the teachers in School A and School B feel.

Teacher influence

1. The teachers estimate the amount of influence they as teachers have in making decisions about their school's educational program to be:

School A	1	2	3	4	5
	None	Little	Some	Considerable	Great deal
School B	1	2	3	4	5
	None	Little	Some	Considerable	Great deal

1a. The teachers think the amount of influence they should have is:

School A	1	2	3	4	5
	None	Little	Some	Considerable	Great deal
School B	1	2	3	4	5
	None	Little	Some	Considerable	Great deal

Faculty Meeting Climate

Please indicate for each of the following items (#2-4) how you think the teachers in Schools A and B would characterize their faculty meetings.

2. Either before the meeting or at its beginning any faculty member can easily get items on the agenda.

School A	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very typical	Quite typical	More typical than not	More untypical than typical	Quite untypical	Not typical at all

School B	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very typical	Quite typical	More typical than not	More untypical than typical	Quite untypical	Not typical at all

3. The average person feels his ideas have gotten into the discussion.

School A	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very typical	Quite typical	More typical than not	More untypical than typical	Quite untypical	Not typical at all

School B	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very typical	Quite typical	More typical than not	More untypical than typical	Quite untypical	Not typical at all

4. When there is disagreement, it tends to be smoothed over or avoided.

School A	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very typical	Quite typical	More typical than not	More untypical than typical	Quite untypical	Not typical at all

School B	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Very typical	Quite typical	More typical than not	More untypical than typical	Quite untypical	Not typical at all

Summary and Future Plans

When all of the questionnaires have been completed and returned to the Leader, the remainder of Session 1 should be spent in providing a summary for this Session and discussion plans for Session 2. Following this, a short post-meeting evaluation form may be distributed to participants for them to complete and return to the Leader before they leave.

The Leader might sum up the proceedings of Session 1 for participants by mentioning the following points: "We have discussed at the beginning of this Session that climate factors do affect productivity of staffs and because of this are considered worth studying. Through use of the taped episodes (or role plays) we have observed one small illustration of a climate factor or variable, and discovered that the two schools portrayed did vary considerably on this aspect of climate. Through the filling out of the Questionnaire, we have been able to see a few ways of measuring this variable through data gathering. This brings us to a brief outline of the plans for Session 2.

"In Sessions 2 and 3 we will begin to explore some of the other factors we can expect to find that would make up the climate in these two schools. We will see a film strip showing the actual responses of the staff in School A and School B to the questions we have just completed ourselves. We will have opportunity to raise other questions in order to explore the differences in climate between these two buildings. In order to broaden our idea of various climate factors and allow us to find some answers to questions we have raised, we will make use of a small data bank of results tabulated from these two schools as well as others.

"In Session 4 comparison of data will start us thinking about causes and relationships among factors and how they contribute to the over-all climate. Finally, in Session 5 we will explore some of our value position about these climates. Do they need changing? What kinds of suggestions for improvement would we give the faculties of these two buildings? Where do we place ourselves along the continuum of building climate differences? Do we want to work on a study for change in our building?"

POST-MEETING REACTION (PMR)

At the end of Session 1, have participants fill out and return the following Post-Meeting Reaction Form. The responses from this post meeting evaluation will enable the Leader to assess the level of receptivity and enthusiasm that participants are feeling toward the program. He can respond to suggestions they may make in Question #3 as he plans for the next session. Participants would probably like to have the results reported to them at the beginning of Session 2. If the responses indicate negative feelings on the part of participants, it might be necessary for the Leader to spend some time at the beginning of Session 2 to work through some of the problems.

POST-MEETING REACTION

Directions: Please circle one digit in response to each of the first two questions.

1. How clear are you about the goals and objectives of this program?

1	2	3	4	5
Very clear		Somewhat clear		Not clear at all

2. How valuable an experience did you find today's activities?

1	2	3	4	5
Very valuable		Somewhat valuable		Not valuable at all

3. Any suggestions regarding the next session?

PREPARATION OF MATERIAL FOR

FEEDING BACK QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES FOR SESSION 2

(To be completed during the interval
between Session 1 and Session 2)

Once the participants have completed the Questionnaire about School A and School B, they will have begun to think about questions one could ask about a school's climate. They will also have had a chance to identify themselves with two different school climates after having seen episodes depicting behavior in those two schools and answering questions about them. For Session 2, a demonstration of the distribution of their answers on those questions will allow participants to see the extent to which they agree with one another on what they perceive the feelings of the teachers in those buildings to be. (At a later time in Session 2, participants will have an opportunity to see how the teachers in School A and School B actually did answer.)

If the Leader does not plan to handle the feedback himself, he might select an individual or sub-group from among the participants and explain to them what to do. It is suggested that the format which will be used to depict the actual responses of the teachers in School A and School B later on in Session 2, be utilized to present this material. Examples of these follow:

For Questions 1 and 1a for each school, compute the mean score for each item. This is done by taking the total number of responses that fall under each digit and multiplying by that digit. Do this for all five digits, add the scores, divide by the total number of responses for the entire item. The result is the mean score.

Example:

School A (total number of responses = 13)

	1 None	2 A little	3 Some	4 Considerable	5 A great deal	
Number of Responses	1	2	4	4	2	
Multiply by Digit	1x1=1	2x2=4	4x3=12	4x4=16	2x5=10	
Add Results	1 +	4 +	12 +	16 +	10 =	43
Divide total by number of responses	43 ÷ 13 = 3.31 is the mean					

Do this for all five digits, add the scores, divide by the total number of responses for the entire item. The result is the mean score.

Example:

School A (total number of responses = 13)

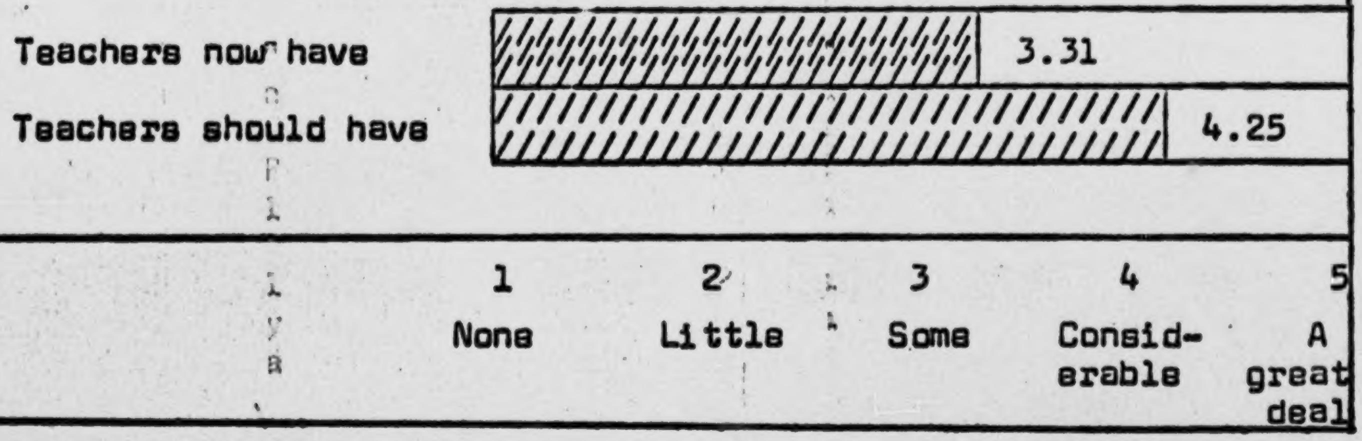
	1 None	2 A little	3 Some	4 Considerable	5 A great deal	
Number of Responses	1	2	4	4	2	
Multiply by Digit	1x1=1	2x2=4	4x3=12	4x4=16	2x5=10	
Add Results	1 +	4 +	12 +	16 +	10 =	43
Divide total by number of responses	43 + 13 = 3.31 is the mean					

The mean score for School A on this item is 3.31. It is suggested that these data be presented in the form of a bar graph as shown in Table 1 on page . For the remaining questions, 2 - 4, the distribution of responses as well as the mean score may be shown. For the distribution simply indicate what percentage of the total responses fell under each digit. See Table 2 as an example of presentation. (Note to Leader: These tables may be duplicated from the manual for the use of those preparing the data presentation.)

Figure 1

Suggested Form for Presenting Results on Questions 1 and 1a

Amount of Influence This Group Thinks the Teachers in School A Have and Want to Have



Persons responsible for the feedback of this material may use one of several methods for presenting their findings. The choice depends largely on what materials are available and what appeals to their taste. The graphs and figures may be presented on:

1. Chalk board
2. Newsprint
3. Ditto or mimeograph, one copy for each participant
4. Slide projector (draw on the slides)
5. Overhead projector

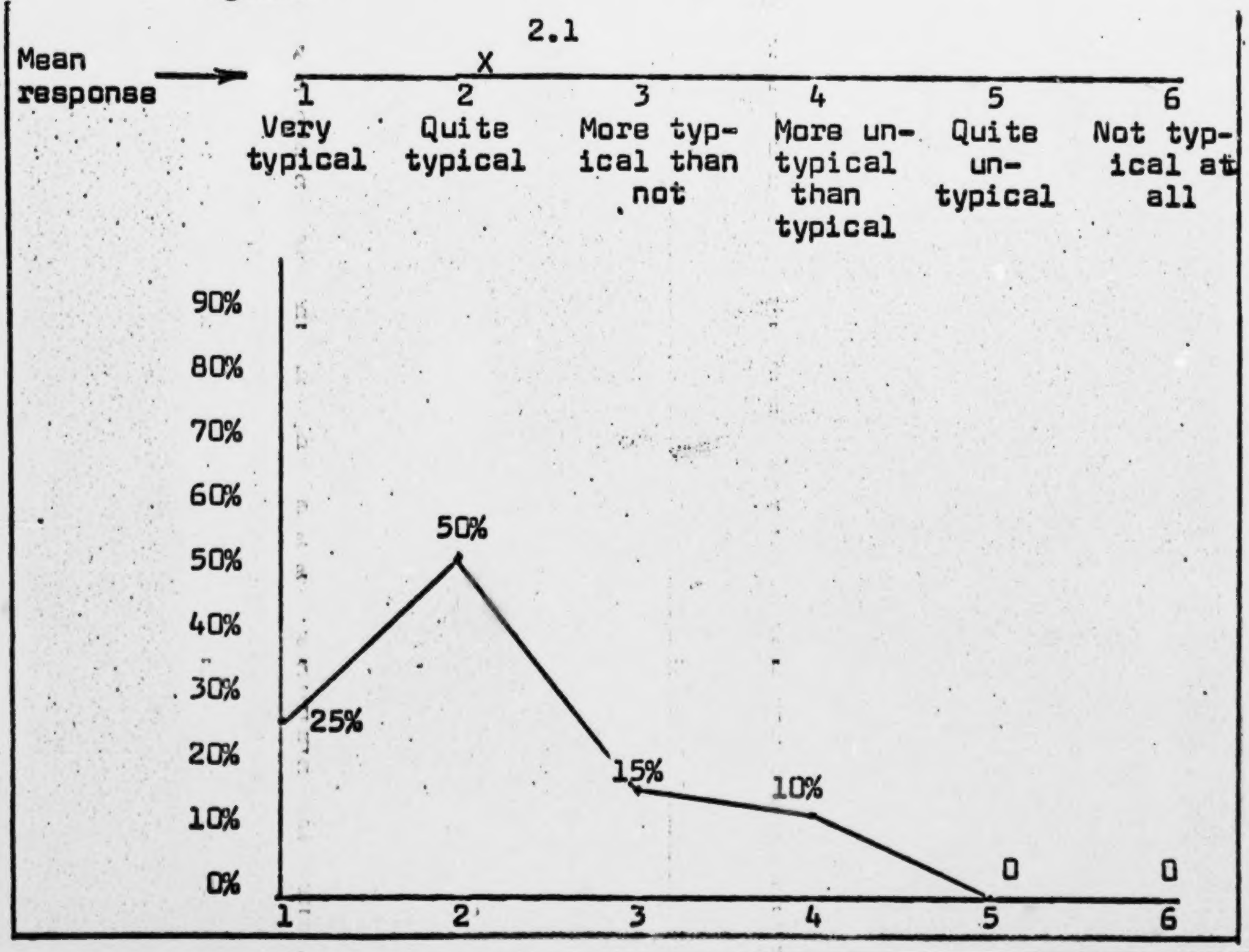
Depending on how responses are distributed, the persons preparing the presentation should consider what kinds of things to point out to participants, such as, how much consensus or disparity there is in the group's responses. This should open the group up to a few minutes' discussion on why or how they made the responses they did.

Figure 2

Suggested Form for Presenting Results from Questions 2 - 4

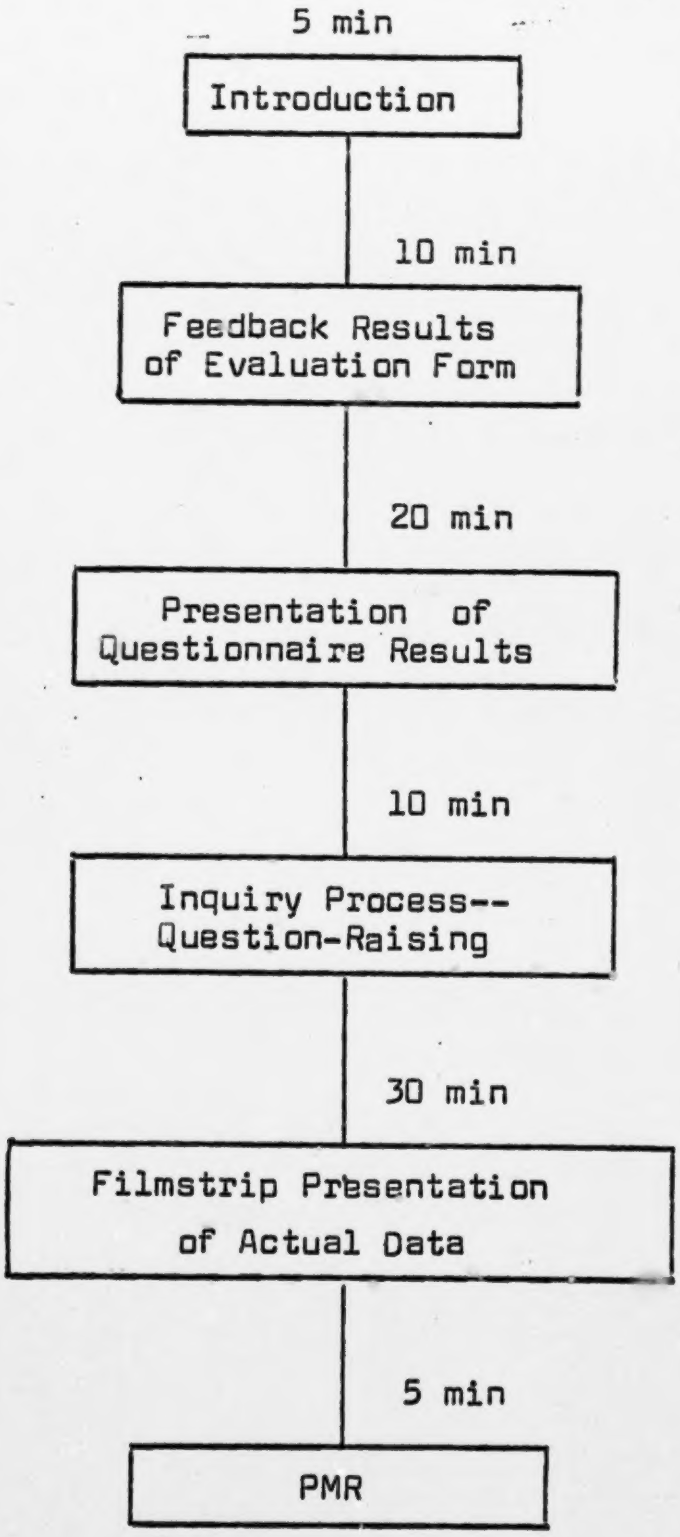
This group feels that the teachers in School A would indicate as follows the extent to which the statement below describes their faculty meetings:

"Either before or at the beginning of the meeting any faculty member can easily get items on to the agenda."



SESSION II

Sequence of Events--Session II


5 min
Introduction
10 min
Feedback Results of Evaluation Form
20 min
Presentation of Questionnaire Results
10 min
Inquiry Process--Question-Raising
30 min
Filmstrip Presentation of Actual Data
5 min
PMR

5 Briefing
10 Presentation
15 Discussion

Objectives

Session II will help participants to discover that one aspect of the professional climate in a school building is closely interrelated with other variables, and will attempt to extend the participants' awareness of these variables and ways of measuring them.

Materials Needed for Session II

Materials	Source
1. Demonstrate materials for feedback of participants' responses to the Questionnaire administered in Session I.	See Leader's Guide, page 29, (Session I) for details.
2. Filmstrip showing actual data from Schools A and B.	Provided with package.
3. Filmstrip projector, or if not available, use other methods of presenting data as discussed on page .	Must be arranged for by the Leader.
4. Post meeting reaction.	Leader should make copies enough for the group, using form similar to that provided with Session I.

Feedback of Evaluation Questions from Session I

The Leader should spend a few minutes sharing the results of the evaluation completed by participants at the close of Session I. No discussion is necessary unless the Leader or group feels it is warranted. For instance, if participants have expressed confusion or negative feelings about the first Session, it would be helpful to work on the problem areas before going ahead with Session II.

Presentation of Questionnaire Results

This presentation will be done by the individual or sub-group selected to tally and feed back the Questionnaire results completed by participants during Session I. The Questionnaire contained four questions that reflected aspects of climate in a building. Participants were asked to answer these questions in terms of how they thought teachers in School A and School B would respond. The discussion that follows this data presentation should focus on the extent to which there was consensus or disagreement among the participants in their responses regarding the teachers in these two schools. Some questions that could be raised about this presentation are: What are the reasons for the responses that participants have made? If there was disagreement, why? What occurred in the two behavioral episodes that would account for the group's perception of teacher attitudes in the two schools?

Inquiry Process--Question Raising

The inquiry process as it is being used in this session has two major steps. The first step will involve the raising of questions about climate factors; specifically, teacher attitude and behavior in these two schools, which will lead participants to the second step, the search for answers to these questions through use of the data bank.

Participants have learned a few things about the professional climate of School A and School B, having viewed the two episodes in Session I. They have the same experience with the types or style of question one can ask about climate factors as a result of filling out the Questionnaire and seeing the results. They may now begin to explore the possibilities of seeking further information about climate in these two buildings.

A possible approach to initiating the raising of questions might be to say to participants: Given what we know about the climate in these two buildings as demonstrated by the behavioral episodes, and considering the way in which we have seen questions asked about climate, what other questions would you like to raise concerning building climate in School A and School B?

As participants begin raising questions, the Leader should list them on the board. No attempt should be made at this point to refine or categorize the questions. This initial question-raising period should not last more than ten minutes. This allows enough time to introduce the notion of question-raising and engage the interest and participation of the group. Session II returns to the question-raising process with more detail and refinement following the showing of a filmstrip presenting a sample of actual data from School A and School B.

Filmstrip Presentation of Data

The filmstrip illustrates the actual responses of the teachers in School A and School B on six items and allows for a comparison of the differences between the two buildings. The content of the filmstrip is shown on the following pages of this manual. Four of the six questions contained in the strip were also included on the Questionnaire administered to participants in Session I from which they were just presented the results at the beginning of Session II. This enables participants to view a data presentation on questions with which they are already familiar. The two additional questions will suggest other climate variables that might be related to those already explored. The introduction of the filmstrip at this time enables participants to think through more clearly the direction that their question-raising activities can take.

Briefing for the Filmstrip

Before presenting the filmstrip, participants may be asked to keep in mind the following questions while viewing the data: How closely do the actual responses from these two schools correspond to our group's perception of the teachers' attitudes? If there are wide differences between our group's perception and the actual responses, what might account for this? How marked are the differences in responses between School A and School B? Is this consistent with the episodes that were observed in Session I? How do these separate variables interrelate with one another to give a clearer picture of the climate in these two schools? What inferences can be drawn about other climate factors in these two schools once these data and the earlier episodes have been observed? Since there are several questions to consider while viewing the filmstrip, the Leader might divide the group into several sub-groups and assign each group one of the above questions to be thinking about.

A filmstrip projector will be needed for presenting the filmstrip. Most schools have these on hand. If there are no facilities available for showing the filmstrip, the Leader may want to present the data on large pages of newsprint. These can be mounted on an easel and the pages flipped to show each new frame. Use the material presented on the following pages as a source of data. If this method is not satisfactory, other options are: drawing information for each frame on a separate slide (ground glass or acetate) and viewing through a slide projector, making transparencies for the overhead projector, or reproducing several hand copies for distribution to each participant.

(Please insert the 16 pages of copy for Frames 1-16 of the filmstrip, here.)

Teachers' Influence

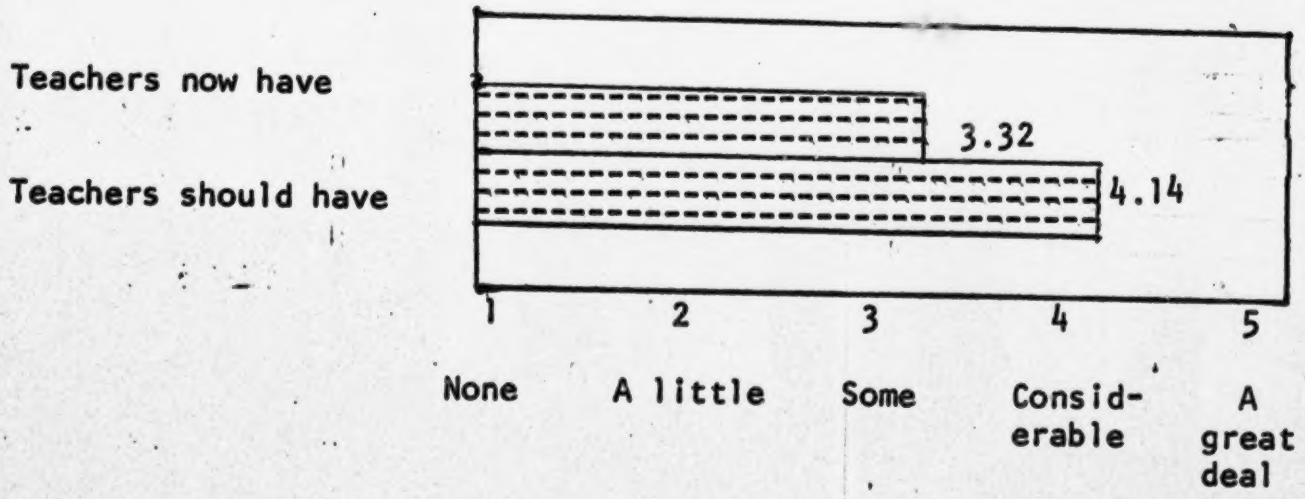
HOW MUCH INFLUENCE DO THE TEACHERS THINK THEY HAVE IN MAKING DECISIONS ABOUT THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS IN THESE SCHOOLS?

HOW MUCH INFLUENCE DO YOU THINK THEY SHOULD HAVE?

Frame 2

School A

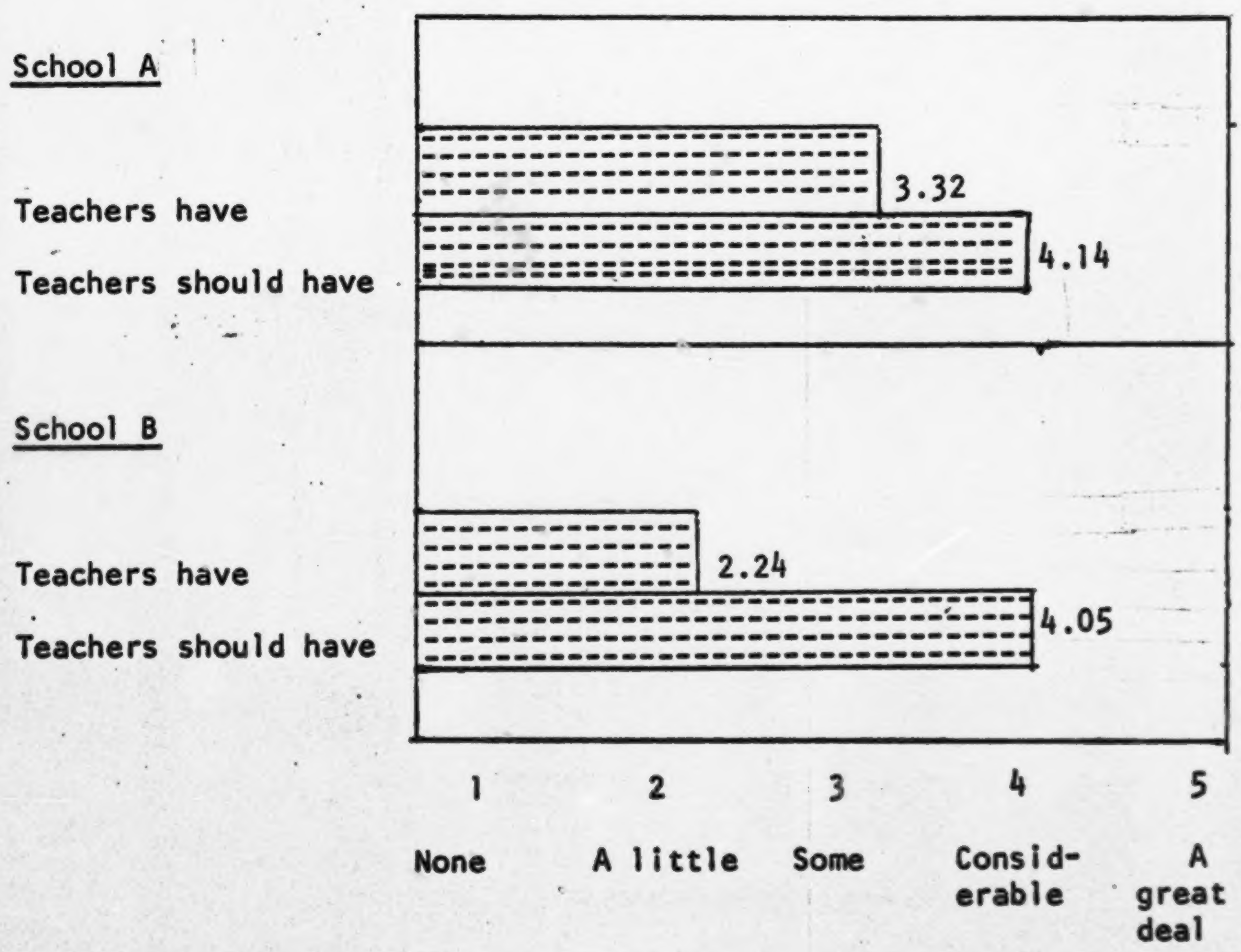
Amount of influence teachers have and would like to have...as seen by the teachers themselves.



Frame 3

School A Compared to School B

Teachers' influence as seen by teachers.



Principal's Influence

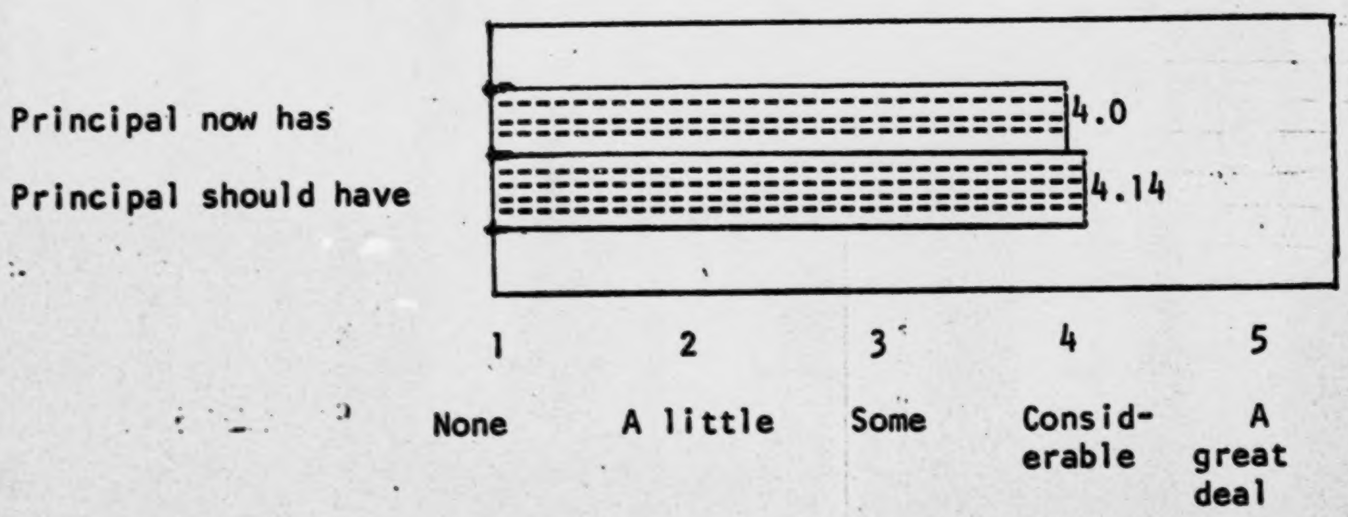
HOW MUCH INFLUENCE DO THE TEACHERS THINK THE PRINCIPAL HAS IN MAKING DECISIONS ABOUT THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS IN THESE SCHOOLS?

HOW MUCH DO THEY THINK HE SHOULD HAVE?

Frame 5

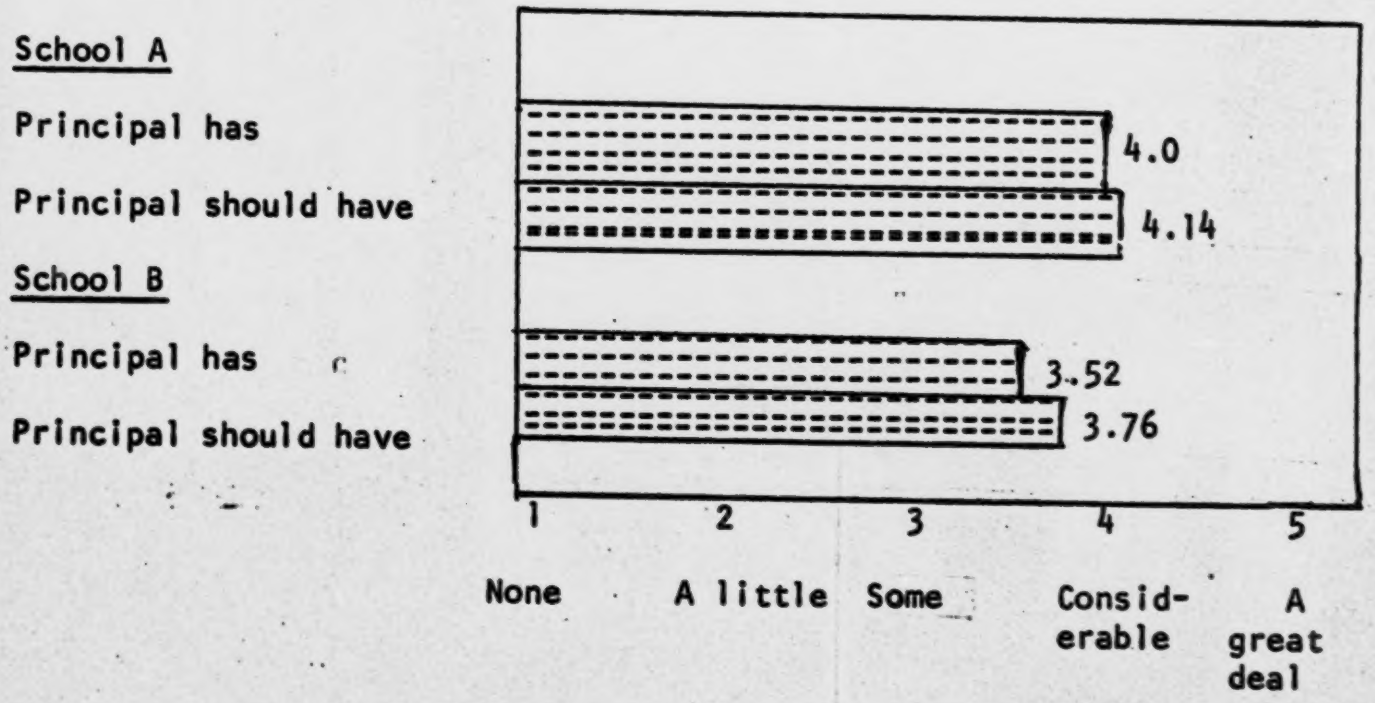
School A

Amount of influence principal has...amount he should have...as seen by teachers.



School A Compared to School B

Amount of principal's influence as seen by teachers.



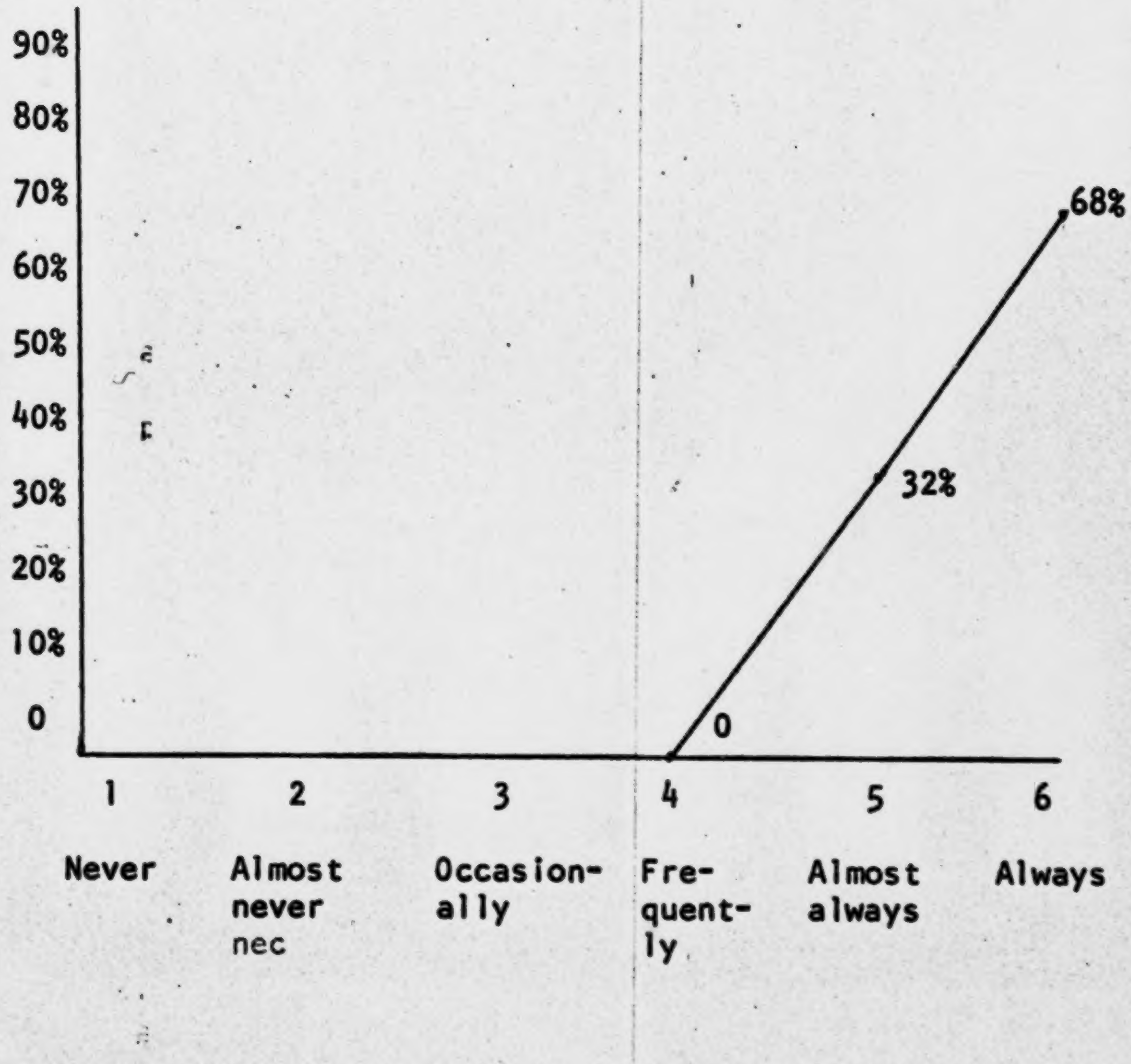
Frame 7

Principal Leadership

Frame 8

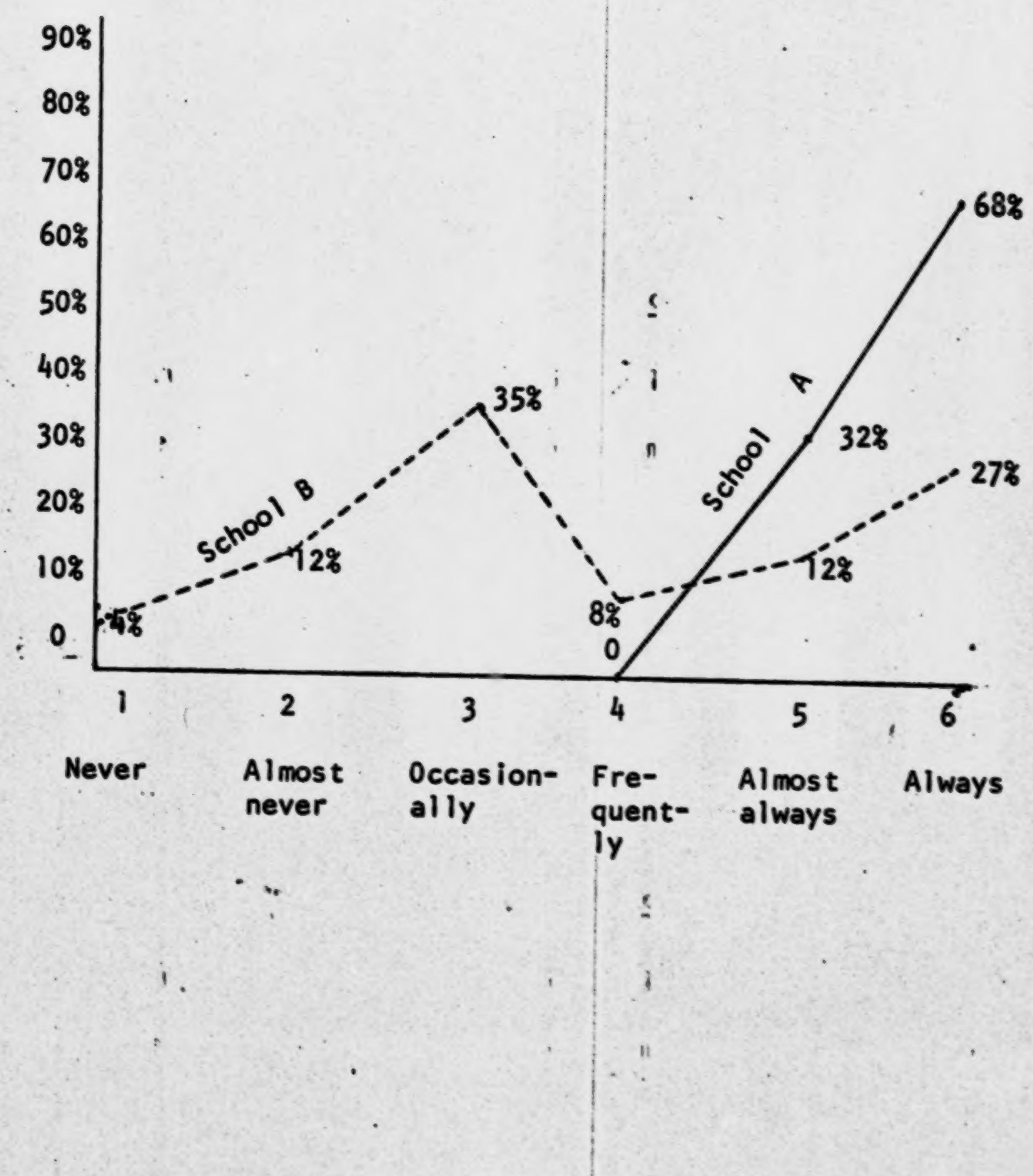
School A

To what extent does the principal give the teachers the feeling that their work is important?



School A Compared to School B

To what extent does the principal give teachers the feeling that their work is important?



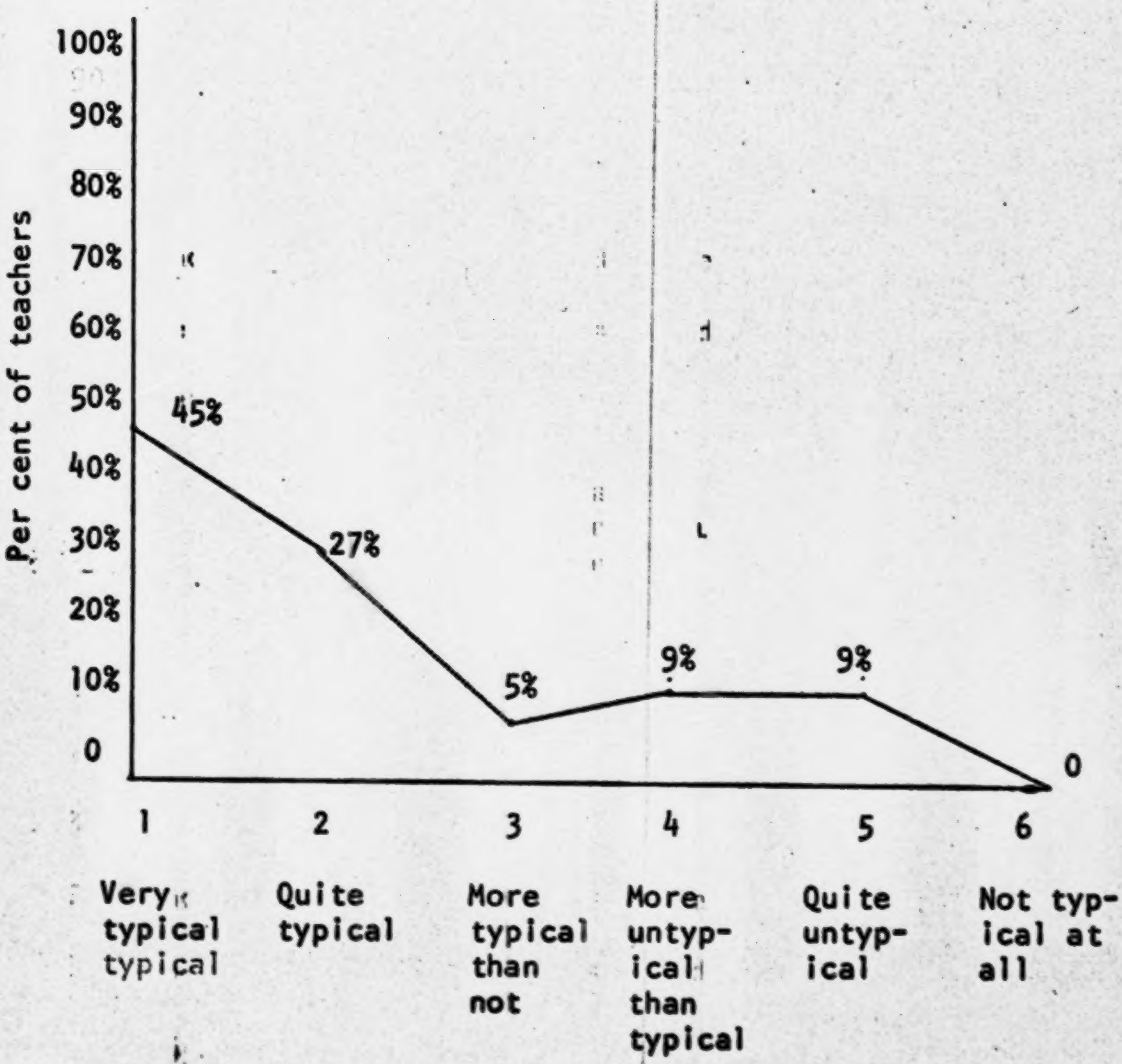
Faculty Meeting Climate

HOW DO YOU THINK THE TEACHERS IN THESE BUILDINGS WOULD CHARACTERIZE THEIR FACULTY MEETINGS?

School A

School A teachers indicated the extent to which the following statement described their faculty meetings:

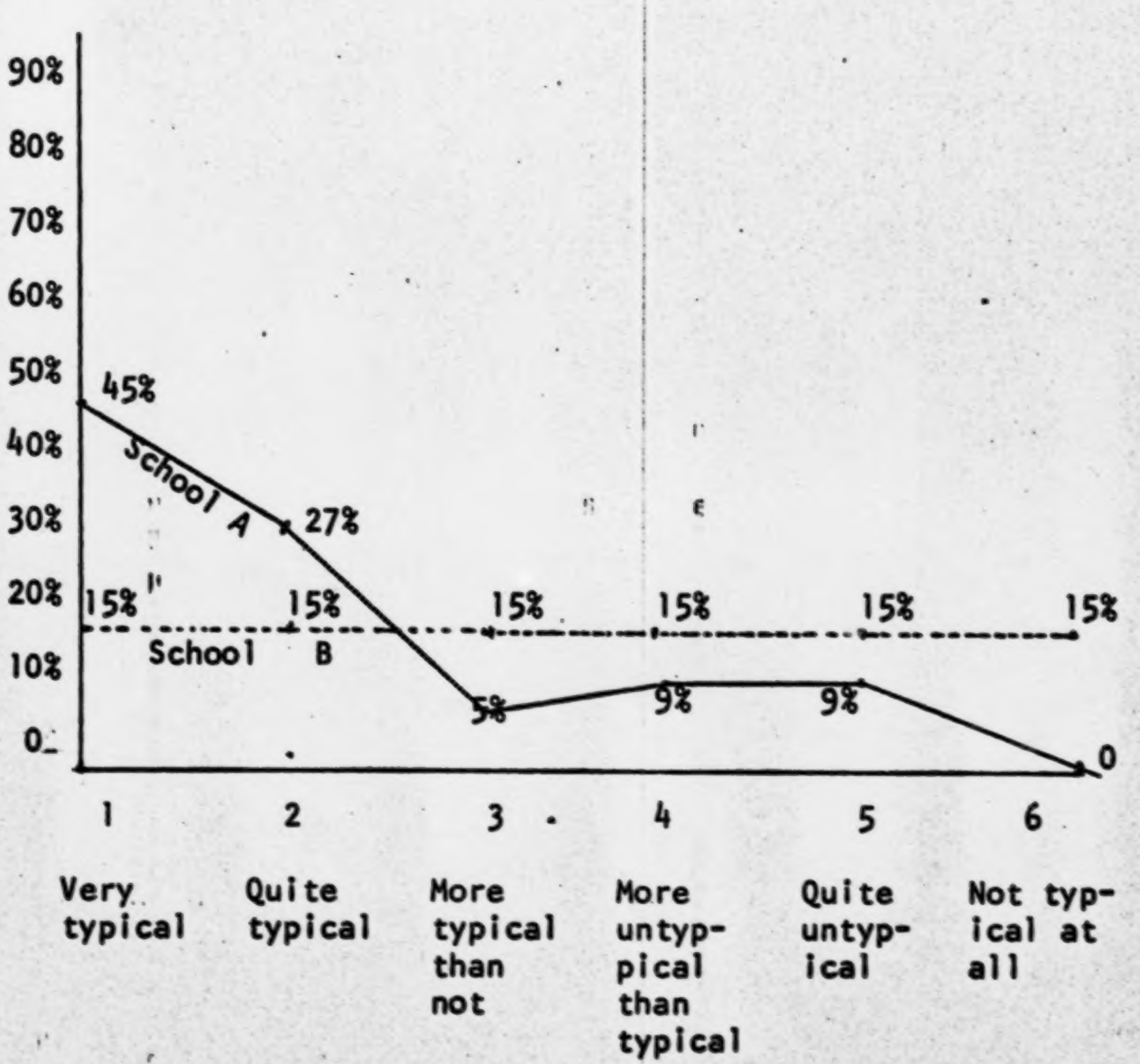
> "Either before or at the beginning of the meeting, any faculty member can easily get items on to the agenda."



Frame 12

School A Compared with School B

"Either before or at the beginning of the meeting, any faculty member can easily get items onto the agenda."

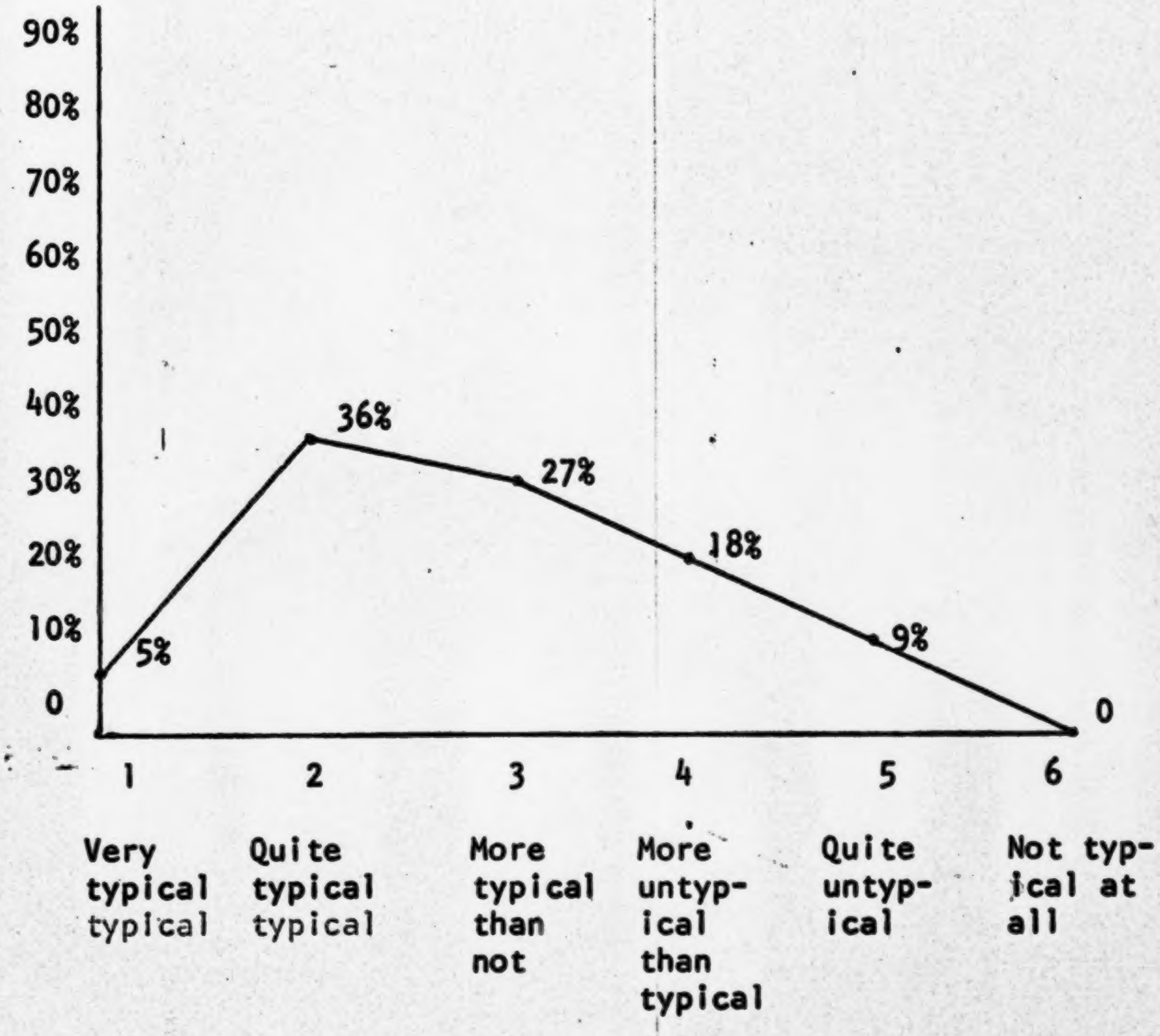


Frame 13

School A

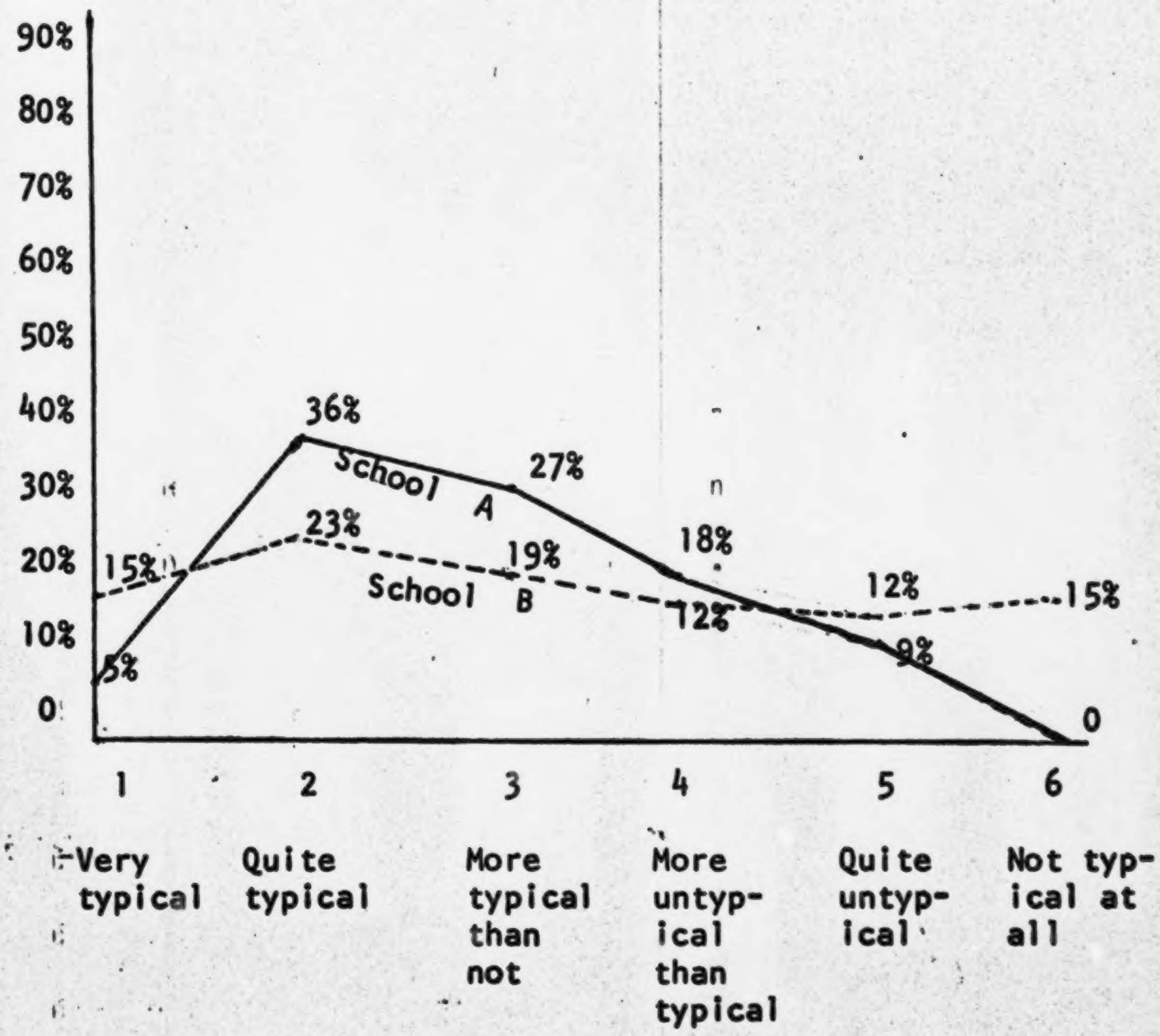
School A teachers indicated the extent to which the following statement described their faculty meetings:

> "The average person in the meeting feels his ideas have gotten into the discussion."



School A Compared with School B

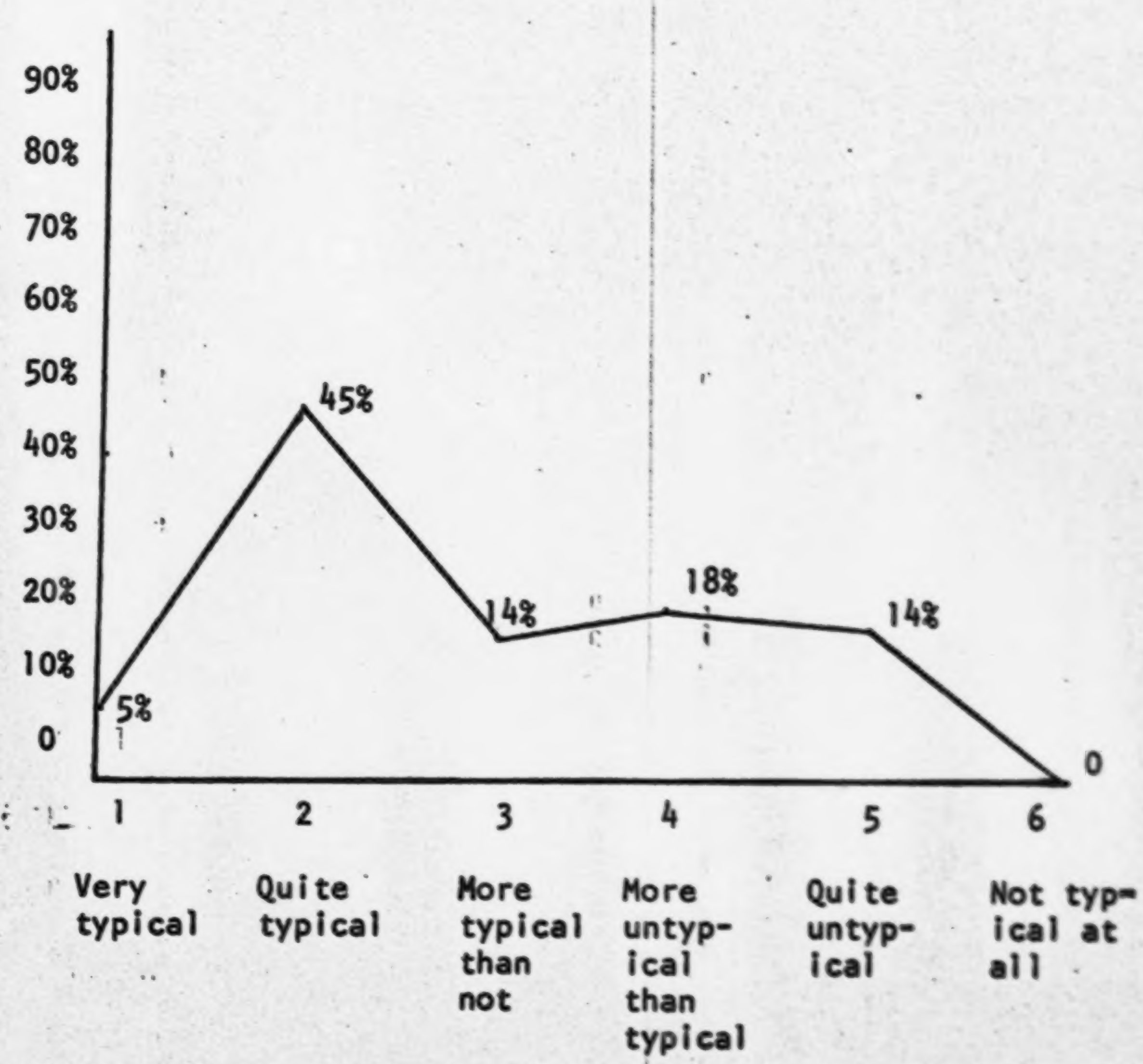
"The average person in the meeting feels his ideas have gotten into the discussion."



School A

The teachers in School A indicate the extent to which the following statement characterizes their faculty meetings:

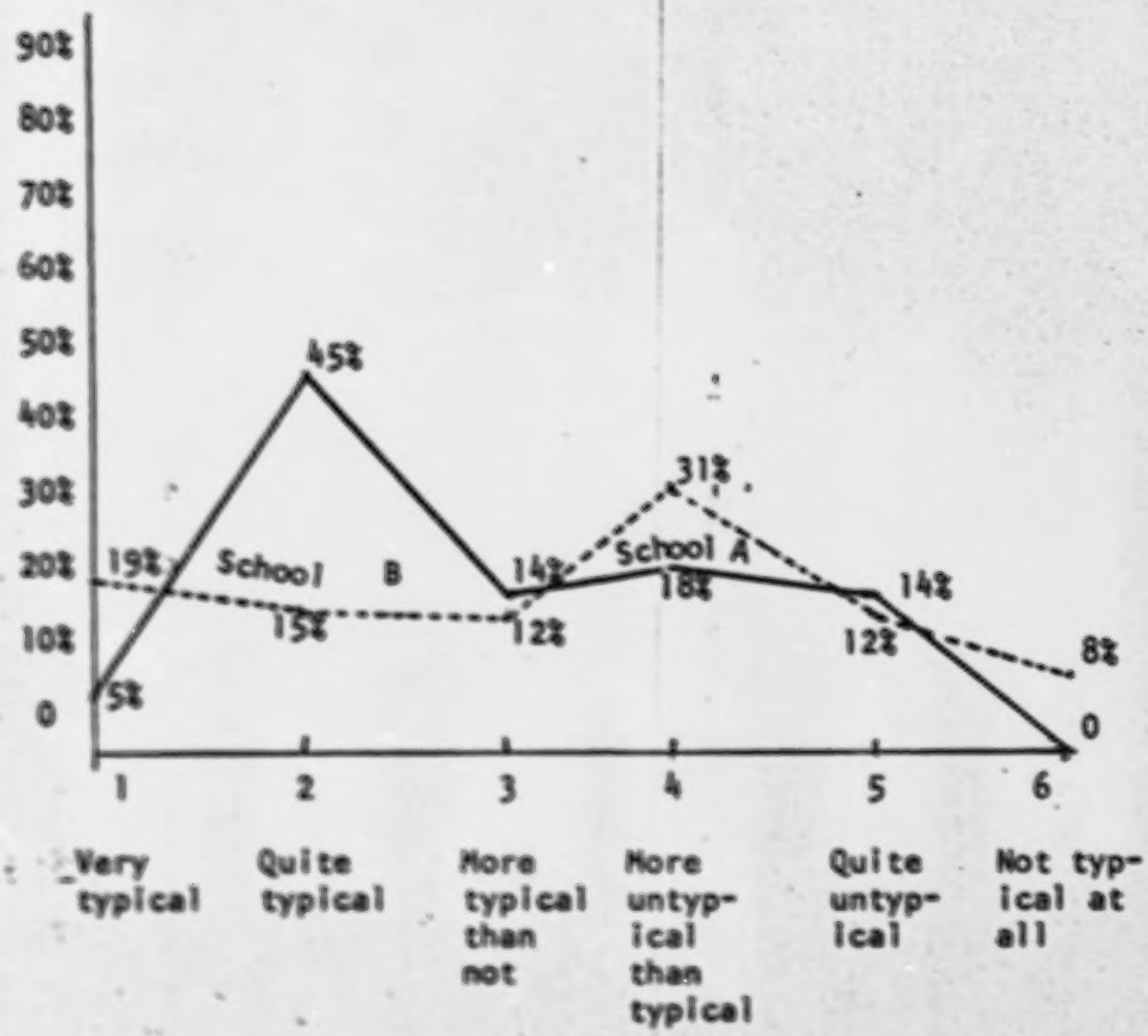
> "When there is disagreement, it tends to be smoothed over or avoided."



Frame 16

School A Compared to School B

"When there is disagreement, it tends to be smoothed over or avoided."



Discussion about Filmstrip Presentation

This discussion will center on the points raised prior to the viewing of the data. Each sub-group designated before the presentation will need time for discussion among its members what was observed about the question that was assigned to the group. This will be followed by a total group discussion of all the issues that were raised. It isn't necessary to take a great deal of time with this, but the general direction of the discussion should lead to two primary issues: What is the climate really like in these two schools? and What other variables besides those just seen in the filmstrip data might account for or relate to the climate factors just observed? In other words, what keeps this state of affairs going? How did it get that way?

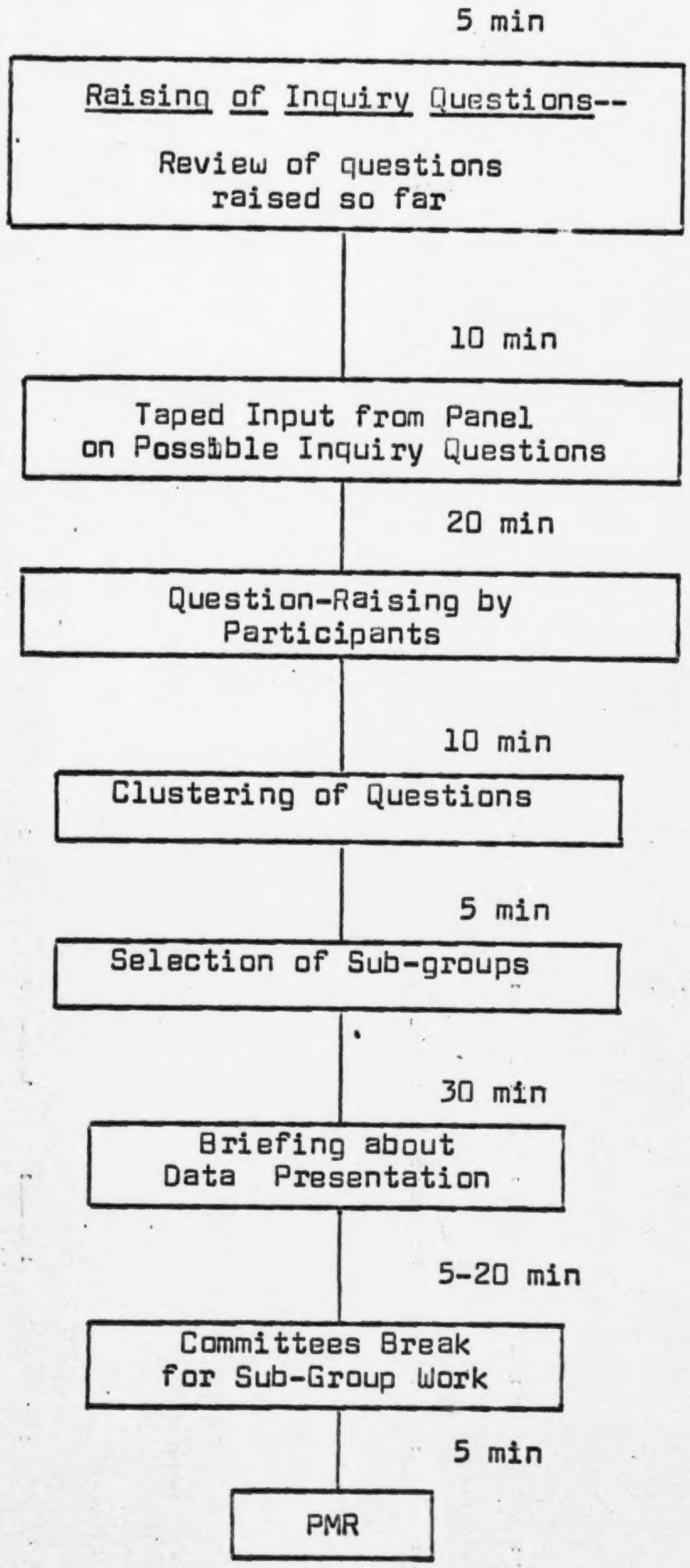
Once the participants have begun to think about these issues, it will be possible to re-focus their attention on the questions which have already been on the board, and to supplement these with additional questions which examination of the filmstrip data has stimulated. It will be with this activity that Session III will start.

Post Meeting Reaction

Again, a few minutes spent in gaining from the participants their reaction to the session will be helpful in seeing how things are going, and in laying plans for Session III. The PMR form suggested for Session I may be used as is, or modified as desired.

Session III

Sequence of Events--Session III


5 min
Raising of Inquiry Questions--
Review of questions raised so far
10 min
Taped Input from Panel on Possible Inquiry Questions
20 min
Question-Raising by Participants
10 min
Clustering of Questions
5 min
Selection of Sub-groups
30 min
Briefing about Data Presentation
5-20 min
Committees Break for Sub-Group Work
5 min
PMR

20 - Use of data bank
10 - Guidelines for research

Objectives

Session III will guide participants in raising inquiry questions about the school building climate, and will give them experience in seeking out and utilizing data in relation to such questions.

Materials Needed for Session III

Materials	Source
1. Chalkboard or newsprint on which to record inquiry questions.	Needs to be provided by the Leader.
2. Tape--Panel of Experts Discussing Possible Inquiry Questions.	Furnished with the package..
3. Tape recorder.	Needs to be provided by the Leader.
4. Data bank cards.	Furnished with the package.

The Raising of Inquiry Questions

At the close of Session III, there was some thought given to why the two schools are so different. What other variables beyond those presented in the filmstrip data might account for the differences? Perhaps the group listed a few of these questions. The Leader should now review these, beginning a list if it is not already started, and added those questions that come readily.

Before extensive effort is given to this task, however, suggest to the participants that they listen to a tape of three social scientists at the University of Michigan discussing the same problem--"What kinds of inquiry questions might be worth exploring in relation to the climates of the two buildings--School A and School B?" The panel members have listened to the role played episodes and have just viewed the filmstrip. The text of the tape appears on the following pages.

Some of the questions that will be raised during the tape, and which participants should be considering for their own question-raising, are the following:

1. What data do we have now about these schools?
2. What are some related variables that we may want to know about? That is, what other phenomena are associated with the factors we already know about climate in School A and School B?

3. What can we say about causation? Do we have any theories about what causes the state of affairs? Are there several causes? Can we make a decision about what factors might cause climate to be the way it is?

After raising these points with participants and explaining what the tape contains, the Leader should play the tape.

Transcript of Tape

NARRATOR: A panel of three social scientists from the University of Michigan have just listened to the role plays and viewed the filmstrip showing some of the data about the professional climate of Schools A and B. The panel members include Dr. Ronald Lippitt, Professor of Sociology and Psychology; Dr. Robert Fox, Professor of Education; and Dr. Emily Girault, Professor of Social Studies Education. Let's listen to see what kinds of things they think are particularly relevant to understanding what's going on in these two schools.

DR. FOX: Well, Dr. Lippitt, we've just seen some interesting data about these two schools. What strikes you as the most interesting?

DR. LIPPITT: Well, one thing that interests me is that in School A where the teachers see themselves as having quite a bit more influence on decisions than those in School B, there is relatively less discrepancy between current influence and the amount of influence they think teachers should have.

DR. FOX: You mean they are fairly well satisfied?

DR. LIPPITT: I think that their needs for influence are to a fair degree being met, as compared to teachers in School B who feel they should have a lot more than they do.

DR. FOX: That's interesting! So one measure of a good climate may be found in the lack of discrepancy between the actual amount of influence teachers see themselves having, and the influence they would like to have.

DR. LIPPITT: True! I'm also intrigued with the fact that while in School A the teachers see the principal as having slightly more influence than they do, they're willing for him to have more influence. In fact, they think the teachers should have about the same amount of influence as the principal, whereas in School B the teachers are obviously reluctant to have the principal have as much influence as they have.

DR. FOX: Yes. So another generalization that might be drawn is that influence isn't like a pie that you cut up, so that if one has more influence, others have less. In School A the teachers and the principal together have more total influence than do teachers and principal in School B. So the teachers having more influence doesn't necessarily mean that the principal has less or that the teachers want him to have less. Both may have more influence.

DR. LIPPITT: I wonder if the same notion carries over to a desire to increase parent influence?

DR. GIRAULT: Or student influence?

DR. FOX: Well, let's see. We are predicting that if the teachers see themselves as having a good deal of influence and are happy with their principal having influence, they will be more likely to support the students' having influence.

DR. LIPPITT: And possibly the principal would be more ready to support parents' having influence.

DR. FOX: It would be interesting to find out if that actually happens in these two schools. We would predict, then, that in School A both principal and teachers would like to see other people in the system have more influence and would probably foresee them as having more influence already.

DR. LIPPITT: Because influencing each other is a collaborative rather than a competitive kind of process.

DR. FOX: What are some other things that we see going on in these schools from looking at the data?

DR. GIRAULT: Well, in School A the teachers are saying that the principal is strongly supportive by giving them the feeling that their work is important. I wonder if this doesn't help to make them feel more supportive of the principal and his influence efforts when he makes them?

DR. FOX: And in School B, you can't say that the principal is either non-supportive or supportive, because different teachers see him quite differently.

DR. GIRAULT: It's amazing. Some teachers see him as highly supportive and some see him as almost never giving them a feeling that their work is important.

DR. LIPPITT: Would this be related to the point that those teachers who feel they don't have influence and aren't listened to by the principal see him as non-supportive?

DR. GIRAULT: It would seem to follow.

DR. LIPPITT: Whereas others may be the oldtimers, or feel that they have an in with him and have some advantage competitively as compared to their peers. Therefore, they feel he is supportive of them.

DR. FOX: It might be interesting to have a sociometric on that school building to see if there's a clique of teachers that are "in" and other cliques that are "out".

DR. LIPPITT: Yes. So we're saying that maybe a spirit of competition within the faculty leads to competition for the attention of the power figure, the principal. It could be, of course, that the very fact he gives support to some teachers and not to others creates the competition.

DR. FOX: That could be. I suppose data could be gathered on that, too, from the principal about how he sees his staff.

DR. LIPPITT: Yes. Now, these items about the faculty meeting seem to bring up a whole set of different questions about the state of affairs in the school. Faculty A sees that they've got influence in getting things on the agenda, which would be one reason for their perception of their own strength of influence. In School B, some feel that they've got high influence and some feel they have very little.

DR. FOX: It seems to me there's another problem being demonstrated in School B. They don't seem to know what each other is thinking. Maybe they're not talking to each other enough. How can 15 per cent of the teachers in School B say it's very typical of our meetings that the agenda can be influenced when another 15 per cent say that it's never characteristic of our meetings?

DR. LIPPITT: It must mean that getting things on the agenda is not a very public or legitimized kind of procedure; that it's something an individual may do with more or less success, rather than there being some known procedure, such as the principal asking publicly ahead of meetings for items for the agenda.

DR. FOX: Yes, that was certainly reflected in the role plays. In School A, there was a procedure set up. The teachers had a committee that could influence the agenda and everyone knew about it whereas in School B there was considerable unclarity about whether or not we could get the principal to put something on the agenda! It was a question that hadn't evidently not frequently been brought up.

DR. LIPPITT: The item having to do with whether people feel their ideas can get into the discussion or not raises a different kind of question. The data show that there isn't much difference between the two schools in the way in which the faculty members see that their ideas get listened to in the discussion. I wonder if School A might need to think about this a bit. Maybe there's some openness about getting things on the agenda, but because of the way in which meetings are run, it actually doesn't make much difference. People aren't being listened to.

DR. FOX: If one wanted to be diagnostic about these schools, both School A and School B have some teachers who feel that their ideas can seldom get into the discussion. So there is room for improvement in each school.

DR. LIPPITT: Right. They may be losing a lot of the resources of a staff by the silent people.

DR. FOX: So we can use data of these kinds not only to see what is the typical situation, or the average feeling about things, but to look at individual differences among teachers in the way they react and participate.

DR. LIPPITT: This is certainly as true of a classroom group as it is of a faculty group.

DR. FOX: Well, it's been interesting to explore some of our insights into what's going on in School A and School B as far as faculty meetings are concerned. I wonder what other kinds of things might characterize the professional climate of these buildings?

DR. GIRAULT: Wouldn't you guess that when teachers feel they do have influence and are relatively satisfied with the amount of influence they have, and at the same time see their principal as being supportive and open, they're likely to be more active, such as being willing to volunteer, for example, for committee assignments?

DR. FOX: The roleplay for School A showed that the new teacher, seemed to be interested in committee work and felt that the principal set the climate that made this worthwhile.

DR. LIPPITT: If there is a request for, oh, the introduction of some new activity or program in such a school, aren't the teachers more likely to be ready to listen to the principal's introduction of these new ideas?

DR. FOX: If they think they can have influence on the program rather than accept it, I'm sure it would make a difference in their willingness. I would think we might project that the teachers in School A feel happier about their work. Morale would be higher in that building. They would be more likely to stay on the job; turnover would be less.

DR. GIRAULT: Well, if this were true, wouldn't it also mean that the teachers are more able to freely give energy to students and enjoy interacting with them?

DR. FOX: In other words, their energies aren't being directed into or dissipated on problems of interacting with their principal or with their colleagues.

DR. GIRAULT: Or feeling negative about their jobs.

DR. LIPPITT: I would think the teachers in School A would tend to be less frightened about being innovative or trying new things, in terms of having support from the principal and having influence.

DR. FOX: So trying out a new idea would be less of a risk for them.

DR. GIRAULT: There might be some difference between Building A and Building B in how much willingness teachers have to share their innovations with each other, also.

DR. LIPPITT: That's right. If in School B they were competing for influence, for example, they might also be competitive to the point of not being willing to share things.

DR. FOX: We might predict, in Building B, where there seems to be this ambivilant attitude toward the principal and toward how things are going in the building, that there might be less sharing because there are cliques that are competitive with each other.

DR. GIRAULT: This may result in a norm against innovation and against change in School B, since teachers probably don't talk with each other as much as they do in School A.

DR. LIPPITT: This would go along with your interpretation a while ago that one of the reasons for individual differences in the amount of influence they think a principal should have or teachers should have is that there is little sharing between teachers and therefore, little development of any consensus about what's appropriate. There's more of an atmosphere of secrecy or non-sharing or cautiousness.

DR. GIRAULT: This is a concept of plural ignorance; there is a tendency to assume that the norm is such and such without really checking up whether or not that really is the norm.

DR. LIPPITT: So everybody sort of stays ignorant about how other people are feeling; no consensus can ever really be explored. This would tend to make things rather risky because nobody really knows when he might be sticking out his neck. I was wondering if the teachers see the principal as having influence on decisions and feel satisfied about the kind of influence he has. I wonder if they wouldn't provide the kind of support that would make that principal want to exert more influence upward on their behalf? That might be another consequence.

DR. GIRAULT: This feeling of being influential could have its effect both upward with the principal and the central office, and inward with the students in the school, couldn't it?

DR. FOX: You're saying that the principal may be seen as "one of us" even though he has a lot of influence. The influence is representative and supportive of our interests and needs.

DR. LIPPITT: Also, that principal is likely to feel good about himself because of the support he feels. He would therefore be psychologically more ready and able to take risks on behalf of his faculty.

DR. FOX: In a sense this is a question that's the alternate of the one we had data on. The teachers in Building A see the principal as giving them support, of thinking that their work is important. We could gather data on how the principal thinks the teachers feel about the principal's work. Do the teachers feel that the principal's doing important business that helps us, or do they see the principal as trying to impose on us policies or programs that come from outside?

DR. LIPPITT: I suppose one question that might be raised is whether the difference in the state of affairs between the two buildings might be attributed simply to the personality of the principal.

DR. GIRAULT: That theory would lead one to the conclusion that any possibility of change would have to await change in the principal, wouldn't it?

DR. LIPPITT: Mm, hmm. Whereas we've implied a number of times that it may be more in the kind of relationships within the faculty that sets the climate.

DR. FOX: It seems to me if I were a member of one of these faculties and wanted to search for ways of improving the climate, I would keep in mind that seldom are the causes single causes. There are likely to be a number of explanations. There are likely to be a number of factors working in combination. The principal may be important, but there are also other things that are important, too.

DR. LIPPITT: For example, the oldtimers in the faculty may be considered a primary factor. On the other hand, if the newcomers have entered into collusion by being backward and cautious rather than sharing their new ideas, then they're contributing to the closed climate, also.

DR. GIRAULT: Contributing to and maintaining the status quo.

DR. LIPPITT: The status quo of low influence and being discontent about it, but not taking risks to try to change the situation.

DR. GIRAULT: ...blaming it all on one cause!

DR. LIPPITT: ...and making assumptions that the principal isn't ready to be influenced.

DR. FOX: I think it would be very exciting if you were a part of a faculty like this, to identify some of the possible points at which you'd like to change the climate. One would then have the opportunity of working on several of these points, rather than putting his eggs in one basket in hope that changing the principal would have a major effect.

DR. LIPPITT: Many facilities have discovered that there is a lot more readiness for various kinds of changes than has been assumed; therefore, it proves to be much less risky to take initiative than was anticipated.

Further Discussion of Inquiry Questions

Following the tape-playing, the participants may now re-focus on the raising of their own questions. The discussion they have just heard on the tape will have suggested possibilities that they might not have considered before. The Leader should ask them to review the questions they had listed earlier. In view of the filmstrip they have seen and taped discussion they have heard, it should now be possible for the participants to generate additional questions about the climate in these two schools.

On pages 49 - 50 are several category headings under which the climate variables, available in the data bank accompanying this program, are grouped. During this phase of question-raising, the Leader might make use of these headings and the sample questions associated with them to give direction to the kinds of questions that are raised. For example, if the Leader feels that participants have neglected to raise questions about one climate area or category for which there is data available, it might be suggested to the group that they consider this area as being of interest to them. A possible approach to this might be: "We don't seem to have raised any questions concerning teachers' feelings about being innovative or trying new things in these two schools. What are some questions we could raise about this?"

It would probably not be helpful while questions are being raised, for the Leader to share these categories described on pages . It might limit participants to generating only those questions that they could easily apply to each area. If participants raise questions that are not likely to be included in the data bank, the Leader should avoid discussing this at this time. These questions would be useful later when participants are discussing how they might find answers to questions for which no data was discovered.

Categories for Clustering Inquiry Questions

The following categories may assist the Leader in guiding the grouping of the questions raised into clusters. Each cluster deals with one variable or climate factor. The category headings correspond to those used in the data bank. It was felt this would facilitate the data search if participants are already familiar with the groupings.

Principal Leadership - how teachers in a building see the principal conforming to a role that stresses his obligation to improve staff performance and the quality of the educational program.

Possible questions that could fall under this heading:

Does the principal treat teachers as professionals?

Does he use the skills of his staff effectively?

Principal Support - how teachers perceive the social support given to them by their principal.

Examples:

Does this principal work well with others?

Does he get along with others or rub people the wrong way?

*Influence - how much influence teachers see various groups or individuals having in affecting decisions about the educational program. How much influence would teachers like to see these groups or individuals have.

Examples:

How much influence do you think the principal has in determining educational matters?

Morale - the amount of teacher satisfaction with their work and job setting.

Examples:

Do teachers in this building find their jobs rewarding?

Do teachers like to teach here?

Does teacher turnover on this faculty reflect job dissatisfaction?

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*Participants have already seen some data on this area on School A and School B during the filmstrip.

Communication - the degree to which information and feelings are transmitted between staff members in their building with a minimum of distortion. This category includes attitudes toward openness and trust and the extent to which behavior reflects these attitudes.

Examples:

Do teachers in this building feel it is good to keep their feelings to themselves?

During faculty meetings, for example, do people tend to express what they are feeling openly?

Do the data show that teachers are accurate in estimating how their colleagues feel about certain kinds of teacher behavior?

Innovativeness - The amount of time spent by teachers on new and untried behaviors. Also, the amount of support for such innovative behavior in their building.

Examples:

Are teachers rewarded by the school for innovativeness in their classrooms?

Do most teachers in this building feel that trying out new things is good?

Problem-solving - the degree to which effective problem-solving behaviors are used by this staff.

Example:

"Do people try to find out causes to their problems in these schools?"

Demographic Factors. This is not a category for climate factors as such. Demographic factors are those which describe such things as the size, location, and population of a given building. Once participants begin their search through the data bank, they will make use of a key or guide to the bank which describes the demography to a certain degree for each building represented.

Possible questions that might come up could be:

Are School A and School B similar in size?

Are they suburban or urban schools? Might other schools with different characteristics show similarities in climate?

Clustering Inquiry Questions into Related Groups or Categories

Once the Leader feels enough questions have been raised that have covered all aspects of climate in which participants might be interested, the questions may be grouped into categories or clusters. Each cluster should have one common climate variable that relates to all the questions in the cluster. For instance, all questions that deal with the teachers' attitude in School A and School B toward their principal's working effectiveness might constitute one cluster. Another cluster could contain those questions that ask about the morale or satisfaction of the teachers in their building setting. There are several suggested categories on pages 49,50 that will enable the Leader to guide the clustering of the questions by the participants. These categories are the ones contained in the data bank, and it might be useful if participants began to think at this point about what kinds of data they can expect to find before starting their data search. Before the clustering of the questions begins, the Leader may wish to list the seven category headings (provided on pages 49, 50) on the board, then ask participants to begin grouping the questions under these various headings.

If this is done, two things may become apparent to participants. First, there will probably be questions raised that apply to none of the categories, which means that these data are not supplied by this program. During Session III, time will be spent exploring the issue of how data might be gathered on additional questions for which no data were available in the data bank. The Leader may suggest at this time that these questions that do not fit into any of the designated categories be saved for further discussion during the third Session.

Secondly, there may be one or more category headings for which no questions have been raised by the group. This could occur if none of the participants were especially interested in those aspects of building climate. During the raising of the Inquiry Questions, the Leader would have been using these category headings and their example questions provided in the manual to initiate the raising of questions in all the areas covered, so it is not probable that these climate factors were overlooked. However, now that the various categories have been listed on the board, and the questions have been clustered under the proper headings, some of the participants may express the desire to raise some questions that would apply to these categories and include them in the data search. Time could be spent on this once the clustering of all the other questions has been completed.

The Leader may feel that the process of clustering or grouping their questions into categories without the aid of the category headings from pages 49, 50 would be more instructive and exciting to participants. Instead of listing the categories on the board, the Leader should ask participants to develop their own category headings and cluster the questions accordingly. Each category should consist of questions that deal with one climate factor or variable. When participants begin their search for data in the data bank, they will discover at that time what variables are presented and will decide then how their own categories relate to what is available.

There should now be several categories or clusters of inquiry questions listed on the board. The next step will be to move toward a search through the data bank for answers to these questions. The actual search for the data and preparation of materials for presentation of results to the group will be carried out during the interval between Session III and Session IV. The remainder of Session III should be spent selecting sub-groups, each to be responsible for one category or cluster, explaining the use of the data bank and discussing the kinds of feedback of the results the sub-groups will want to present during Session IV.

Sub-groups to Conduct Data Search

It is suggested that the Leader ask each participant to select the category he or she is interested in working with. Hopefully, there will be a fairly even distribution of participants interested in each category. If this does not occur, the Leader should try to get some participants to volunteer for other categories so that each sub-group may be about the same size. If some categories have a far greater number of questions than the others, the Leader may wish to designate more people to work in the sub-groups responsible for them. If it still happens that one or more categories elicit a little interest from the participants, they may be dropped.

Use of the Data Bank

Now that the sub-groups have been selected, the Leader will need to explain the use of the data bank, and suggest possible ways of organizing the findings for presentation during Session IV.

The Data Bank provided with this program consists of 290 5" x 8" cards. Each card illustrates the responses of the teachers in one building to one question or variable. There are 15 school buildings included in the Bank with each building having at least   questions illustrated. The maximum number of questions or variables presented is 60. Only School A and School B have data on all 60 variables shown. The remaining 13 buildings have from   to   variables represented. The inclusion of other buildings in the Data Bank will allow participants conducting their search to compare School A and School B not only with each other, but on some items with other buildings as well. This enables them to consider what differences and similarities might occur in different building settings, whether or not School A and School B are particularly extreme in climate differences, and where the participants' own school might fall along this continuum.

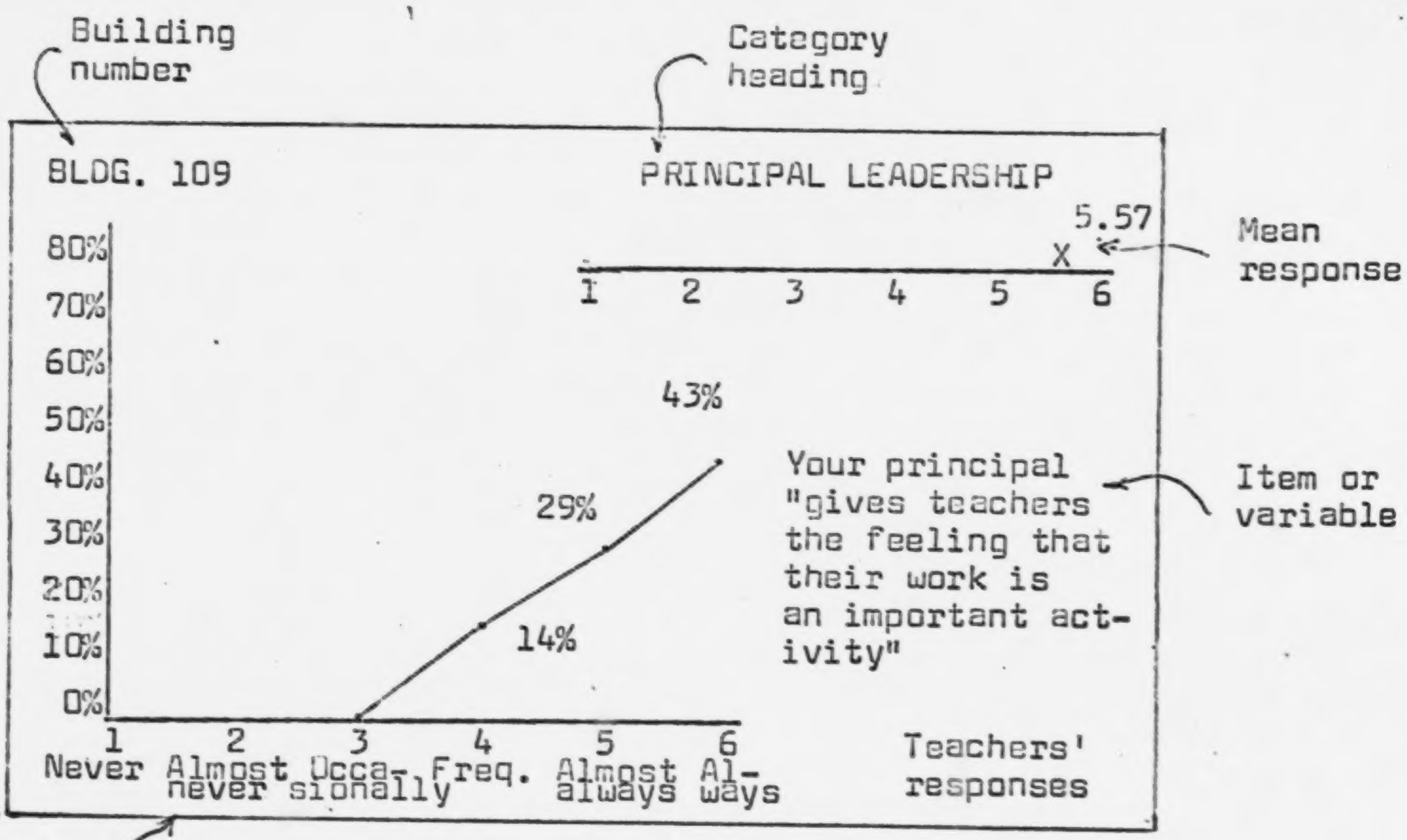
The first step for using the Data Bank will be to look at the key or guide which accompanies the cards. The key has an introductory page that explains its use. The Leader should go over the introductory page with participants to be sure they understand it. Notice that the titles for climate categories listed in the left hand column of the key are the same as those described on pages 49, 50 which the Leader has used as a guide for generating and clustering the questions raised. It would be helpful if the Leader makes the description of these categories available to each sub-group prior to the data search. It will facilitate the search if participants are familiar with what they can expect to find. Copies of these can be made directly from the original on pages .

Each of the 15 buildings in the Data Bank are designated by a building number, as is shown across the top of the key. School A is referred to in the Data Bank as Building 311; School B is Building 402. The cards themselves are numbered from 1 to 290. Once participants are familiar with the use of the key, they will be able to look for the category heading they are interested in, read across the top, in the number of the building they are seeking and find the numbers of the cards that are in the Bank under that category for that building. Then they may look through the Data Bank for the correct card numbers (card numbers will be found in the upper right hand corner of the back of each card) to find if the variables on those cards relate to their questions. If participants are interested in looking at buildings with different demographic characteristics they may consult the bottom left hand column of the key under demographic descriptions, find the description they desire, and read across until they find the building number that falls into this description. Once they have the proper building number, they may use the key to find the climate categories as explained earlier.

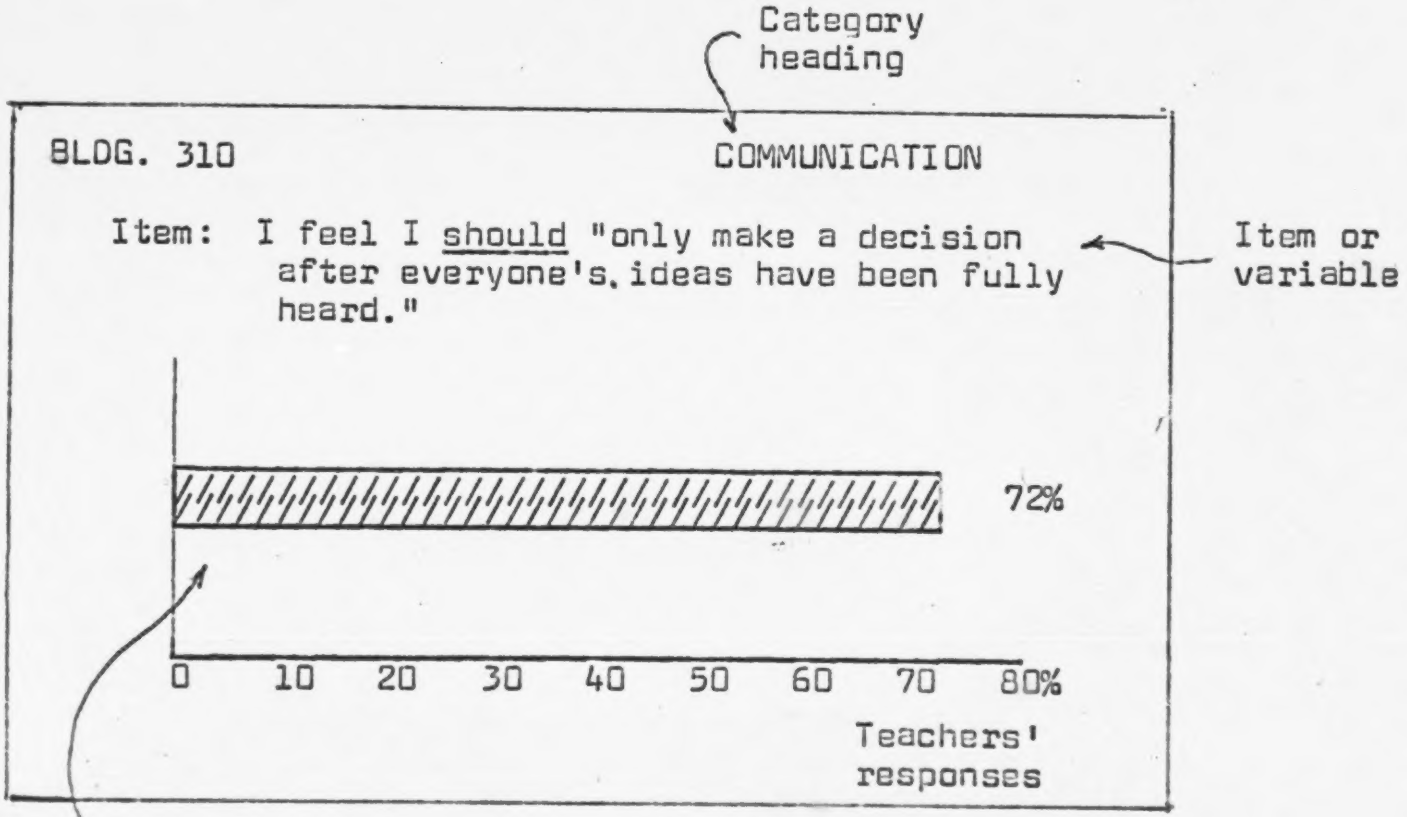
Each card in the Bank has information recorded on both sides of the card. The face of the card contains the building number (upper left corner) and the category heading (upper right corner). The data are presented on the face of each card with a statement of the question or variable and the teachers responses, illustrated usually in graph or diagram form. On many cards the mean response of the teachers is indicated on a scale along with a diagram showing the distribution of responses in percentages. Participants are already familiar with this format for data presentation, having experienced the feedback of their own responses to the Questionnaire and viewed the film strip showing the actual data.

Below are two samples of cards from the Data Bank which might be helpful in explaining the data format to participants.

The back of each card in the Data Bank contains the card number (upper right corner) with a few comments that give participants clues about interpreting the data shown on the face of the card. In addition, the numbers of other cards that contain the same variable from other buildings are listed, so participants will have an opportunity to compare or contrast other settings.



Distribution of responses (percentage of teachers who selected each item)



Distribution of responses (percentage of teachers who said "Yes" to this item)

Inquiry Process - Data Search

Once participants are familiar with the use of the Data Bank, the Leader may begin briefing them on the second phase of their inquiry process; the search for answers to the questions they have generated.

Presumably, each sub-group will consult the data bank for the cards located under the category heading that corresponds to their list of questions. They will then discover for each question one of three things occurs: 1) the question they have posed or an item similarly stated will be presented in the Data Bank; 2) their question is not present in the Data Bank, but items closely related are; or, 3) there is no data for their question in the Data Bank.

When a sub-group has located data that is either precise or tangential to its questions, participants may wish to continue the search for other related data. First, they will want to compare School A and School B on each item. Secondly, they may wish to look at other data provided for these two schools in different climate categories. For instance, if a sub-group is concerned about teachers' morale in School A and School B, and have found data that relates to their question, they might now wish to find out how these teachers feel about their principal's leadership and support to determine what bearing it might have on morale. A third possibility would be to look at other buildings with different or similar demographic characteristics to find out what morale is like in other settings.

If a sub-group does not find data in the Bank for any of their questions, they might keep in mind possible ways of collecting information from teachers and include suggestions for these in their presentation.

Sub-groups should be instructed to keep their presentation limited to ten minutes or less. Style of presentation should be left up to each group. It is suggested that each committee reproduce the exact data from the cards on whatever items they plan to show, and arrange comparisons or contrasts of their data with other buildings, variables, etc., in whatever method they feel would be clearest to the group. Possible methods of presentation would include:

1. Hand copies of the data to be distributed to each participant;
2. Data presented on newsprint that can be taped on the board, or put on a stand allowing for pages to be flipped.
3. Use of a slide projector with information drawn on each slide needed;
4. Any other method each sub-group feels would easily and quickly present data to participants.

While preparing their materials, committee members should keep in mind some of the following points for discussion during their presentation: "What might account for the state of affairs we find in School A and School B? Have we looked at other variables and made some judgments about causes and relationships in these two schools? Have we found similar patterns in other buildings? What are some findings that seem to be inconsistent with general trend...have we found 'bad' characteristics in a 'good' school? What is some other data we'd like to have that was not available in the Data Bank?"

Sub-Groups Break for Committee Work

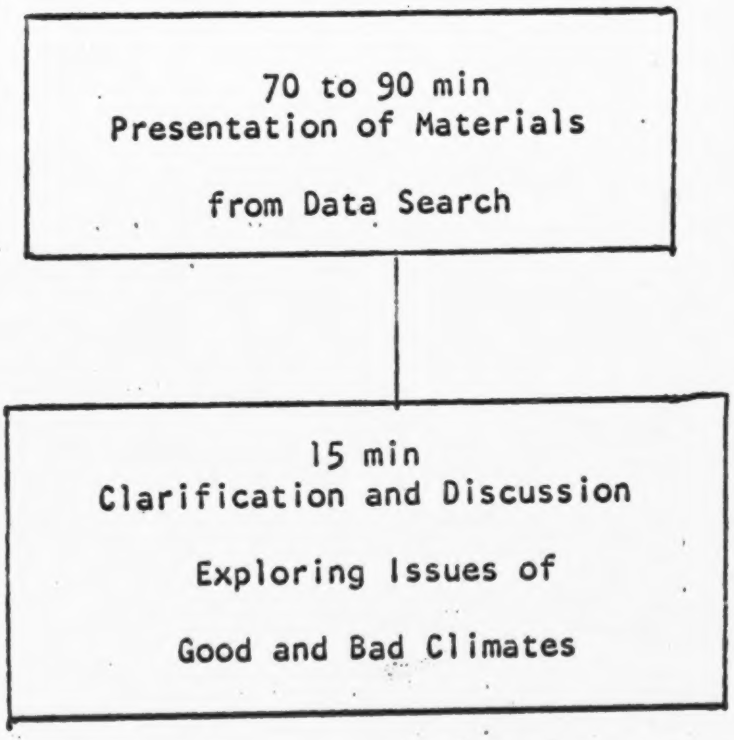
Participants should now spend the remainder of Session III working in their sub-groups to plan for and divide the work that must be completed prior to the presentation for the next session. Since there is only one Data Bank available, each sub-group should work out with the others when its members may have access to the Bank for the Data search. The Leader should determine how long the committees need to prepare for the data presentation and schedule the next session accordingly.

Administration of Evaluation Form

When the committee work has been completed for this session, the Leader may choose to have participants complete an evaluation form as was done at the close of Session I. This will give the Leader the opportunity to assess participants' reactions to Session III as well as determine any change in attitude since Sessions I and II.

SESSION.IV

SEQUENCE OF EVENTS--SESSION IV



Objective: The objectives for this Session are two-fold; to begin participants in drawing implications for a school's climate from data presentation, and to allow for the examination of value alternatives in relation to school climate.

Materials Need:

Materials	Source
1. Materials for presenting Data Search findings (i.e., Newsprint, slide projector)	Provided by designated sub-groups

Presentation of Materials by Sub-Groups

The committees organized during Session III to search for data on the various questions raised will report their findings to the group. The Leader might select the first sub-group to present their material and turn the floor over to them. Following their report, other sub-groups should volunteer as they see how the previous findings relate to their presentation. Each presentation should not last more than ten minutes.

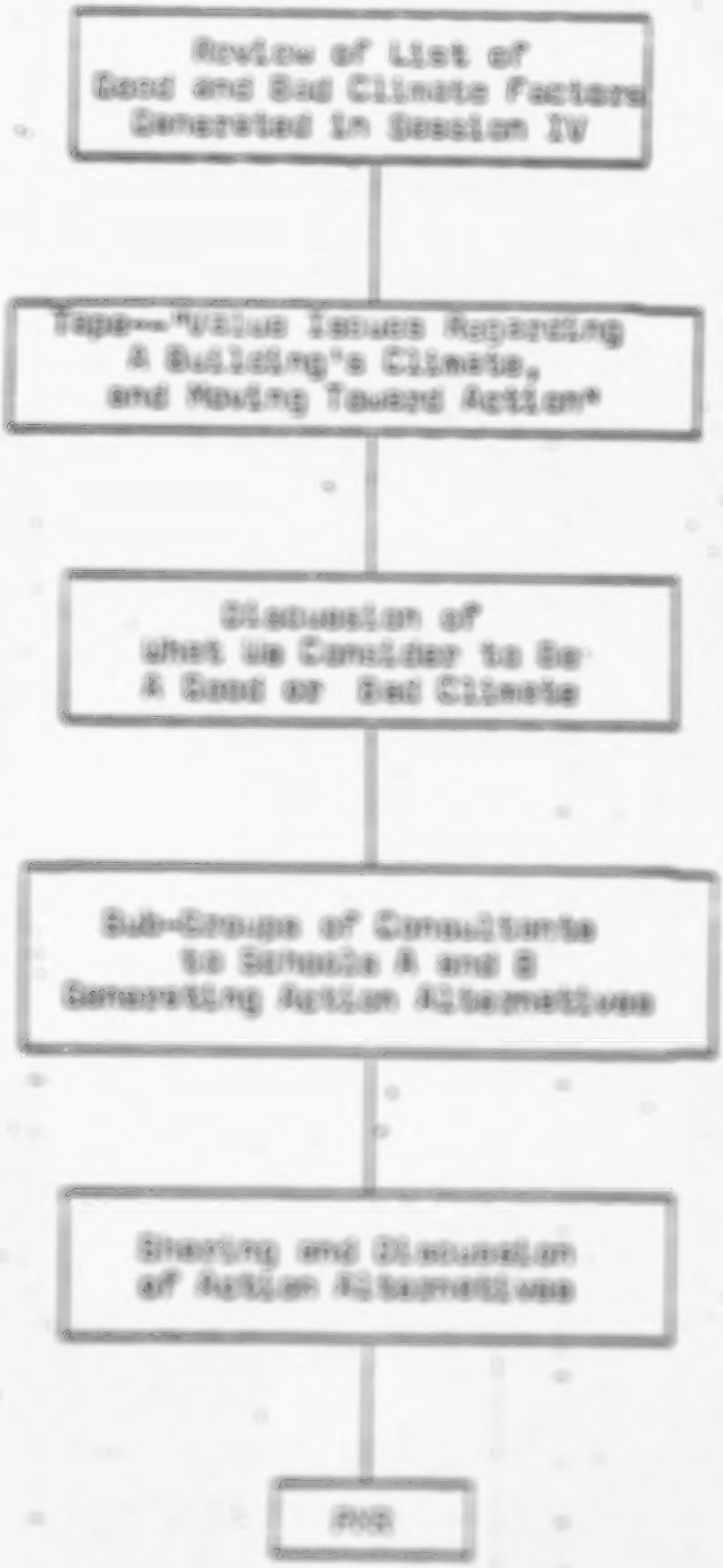
Clarification and Discussion of Materials

When each sub-group has presented its material, discussion will need to follow to clarify points brought up during the presentations. This enables participants to review what they have learned about climate in School A and School B as well as other buildings. The central theme of the discussion should be an evaluative one. How, given what we have learned about the climate in these 2 and other schools, can we decide whether they are "good" or "bad" climates? Is the total climate picture in School A a desirable one? or School B an undesirable one? Or are these elements of "good" and "bad" climate in both schools? Can we make the statement that a certain factor or combination of factors makes a bad climate? How would we want to change the "bad" climate to make it better?

During this discussion, the Leader might begin to make a list of suggestions that are offerred about what may cause a climate to be good or bad and what possible ideas for change should be considered. This list will be developed further during the fifth Session, so the Leader should retain a copy of suggestions generated during this period. Beginning the process of a value inquiry at the close of this Session will familiarize the participants with the sequence of activities for the fifth and final session of the Simulation part of this program.

SESSION V

Sequence of Events--Session V



Objective:

This session will provide participants with the opportunity to clarify their values toward various aspects of a school climate, and to generate a variety of alternatives for improving climate which might be recommended to Schools A and B.

Materials Needed:	Source:
1. List of good and bad climate factors and action alternatives generated during Session IV.	Provided by Leader.
2. Taped discussion by "panel of experts" on generating value questions and action alternatives for two schools.	Provided with package.
3. Tape recorder.	Provided by Leader.

The Leader might begin this session by reviewing with participants the issue of determining what makes a "good" or "bad" climate in a school building and refocus their attention on the list of ideas suggested last session.

Taped Input of Value Issues

After participants have reviewed the several questions they had raised previously for a few minutes, they will be able to listen to a taped discussion centered around the same issues. This tape contains another discussion by the same panel of social scientists heard in Session III. The issue of evaluating a building climate as good or bad and possibly needing to be changed, and the generation of action alternatives are the two themes of this discussion. Participants should be thinking about how this discussion will facilitate their own development of ideas for changing a school climate. The text of the tape appears on this page.

Transcription of Tape

NARRATOR: We are going to ask our panel of experts, now, to help us think about some of the value issues regarding school climates--what is good; what is bad? What do we prefer? Once preferred alternatives are identified, then some of the strategies for action can be examined.

DR. LIPPITT: It seems important to me that we make clear just what kind of assumptions we're making when we say one school is a better school than another school.

DR. FOX: It's pretty easy to assume that the A school is a good school. Yet some of the data aren't that clear. In fact, in some respects the A school doesn't seem so good.

DR. GIRAULT: One assumption on which we might be operating is that the goodness of a school climate is equated with the satisfaction of teachers.

DR. LIPPITT: That's right. That's the thing that amazed me some years ago in Herbert Thelan's Study at the University of Chicago. There was really no relationship between how contented or happy the teachers were and how much education the children were getting; you couldn't say it was a good school in terms of what it was doing for children just because the teachers were happy.

DR. GIRAULT: So if the criterion for a good school is learning by the students, then the happiness of the teachers isn't necessarily the significant factor.

DR. FOX: Yes, a happy school could be a lazy school.

DR. LIPPITT: It could be, yes. Everybody could sort of be in collusion to reward each other for not doing too much for taking it easy.

DR. FOX: In the same way a principal who is not forceful, who doesn't interpose his ideas occasionally, may not be exercising very much leadership.

DR. LIPPITT: I suppose, too, there are differences in the styles of living of different faculties. What sounds like hostility and agressiveness in the faculty meeting in one school might be a level of openness to confront each other, while in another school it may really be hostile, aggressive, competitive behavior.

DR. FOX: The point of difference may be a basic value of support for each other. One can express support and trust by being critical. Criticism, in that kind of context, can be helpful, whereas if you don't have the trust, a critical expression may seem to be a negative one.

DR. LIPPITT: So probably data from a school building showing that teachers feel they are supported by their administrator may also indicate that the system subscribes to supporting the development of the values of trust and openness of communication.

DR. FOX: I would think another value we could agree upon would be that some perception by the teachers that they have influence is characteristic of a good climate.

DR. GIRAULT: It seems to me that a climate conducive to the growth of all the individuals involved in that school community would be a good climate. Sometimes that growth-inducing climate may involve controversy. It might include open expression of criticism and anger.

DR. LIPPITT: Pushing for standards of improved competence.

DR. GIRAULT: Yes. It might include a good many of the pains that come along with efforts to change. But a good climate would include the acceptance of each member as a contributing member.

DR. LIPPITT: Maybe we're talking, however, about two different kinds of acceptance. Maybe the kind of climate in which everybody accepts everybody else in sort of a laissez-faire way isn't such a good one. You do your thing and I'll do mine, and we won't bother each other. We'll tolerate each other and accept each other, rather than caring enough about the job of educating children so that we will really expect each other to be doing a good job and working hard at it. Maybe there's a difference there in what we support each other for.

DR. GIRAULT: Certainly the idea that holding positive expectations for others in a supporting kind of relationship is an important idea.

DR. LIPPITT: Because we do need stimulation rather than just tolerance.

DR. FOX: One other value issue has to do with what kinds of interpersonal interactions are important. Does a good climate require opportunities for staff to interact at the personal level, gaining satisfactions out of knowing each other as people and dealing with each other socially in other ways than in just the strictly professional sense? Or does a good professional climate have to do primarily with teaching and learning and "professional" matters?

DR. LIPPITT: Isn't one of the evidences of a good school climate the evidence that various members of the staff can have different values about some of these things and be accepted as active, appropriate members of that faculty?

DR. GIRAULT: You mean a faculty group could actually hold within it different value postures toward the climate of the school?

DR. LIPPITT: About what is a good school.

DR. FOX: And be actively confronting each other's values.

DR. GIRAULT: So then the hoped-for product of a dialogue among the faculty about values would not be consensus on values necessarily.

DR. LIPPITT: It might be an active dialogue where people are free to try to influence each other and to listen to each other.

DR. GIRAULT: Let's look at the question of identifying what is a good climate. It seems to me that a school faculty could well spend some time trying to identify why the answer to this question is important to them, why it's of importance to them to clarify for themselves what a good climate is. Is it because I want to work in a climate that's comfortable for me? Or is it because I want to help develop a climate that's conducing to the most growth and learning for the students and myself and others. Or is it because I, as the principal, want to keep the turnover on my staff at a minimum? It seems to me the identification of why a good climate is important could be helpful.

DR. LIPPITT: I think, now, it would be good to change our focus of attention to a different kind of problem or a set of problems. One of the things that naturally flows from thinking about what kind of a school climate we have and what might be better, is to try to set some change goals. I think it's important when a faculty is thinking about some of the possible alternatives for change for them to avoid being evaluative too fast. It helps just to get out all the possible ideas they can create and resist censoring the first ideas that come out, or agreeing that these first ideas are great and just what we want! It's better to stay open until all the possibilities have been exhausted and then sit back and say, "Now, let's think about some of the reasons for preferring one way of getting toward a goal as compared to another."

DR. FOX: Once you get this large list of action alternatives, what if all of them are on the positive side? I suppose then the question is, what are the priorities? What's the most important? Such weighing of priorities can be more easily done if you've got the range of alternatives to weigh and sort out, than if you have to make that decision about one single idea that has come up.

DR. GIRAULT: What are some guidelines that a group might use in deciding which alternatives are most important?

DR. LIPPITT: Seems to me that we are tempted to think first about feasibility questions. Do we have the budget for it? Or would it be easy to do. Or could we do it fast? Maybe it's better to start by raising questions about which of the alternatives seem to be in line with what we know about the best education of children, or which of these are in line with the best we know about principles of human relations in staff development.

DR. FOX: I'm puzzling about the criterion of pain; whether the thing that hurts the most ought to get the first action. I'm not sure whether that's a good criterion or not. It's obviously one that's used. Let's say in the role plays it was lack of influence over the agenda that was paining some teachers the most. Should they go to work on developing a mechanism for increasing their influence on decision-making? That may not be the most important problem to work on in the long run. But that's where the hurt is now. The temptation is to start there!

DR. LIPPITT: It may be that if there is something that's a confronting, painful symptom right now we should pay attention to it. Maybe if we don't, there will be so much energy tied up in concern about that pain that there won't be much readiness to look at what-might-be-more-important-in-the-long-run, kinds of efforts. Another way of thinking about it, perhaps, is what kind of change if we brought it about would likely result in a lot of other important changes as a result? I guess one of the things that's always a concern for me in thinking about just starting with what's most painful now, is that there's such pressure to just get away from the pain that there may not be a very clear direction or goal for changes. It's just to get away from, rather than to go toward. We need first to make value judgements about what are the most important goals toward which we're aiming.

DR. FOX: A good example is the faculty that feels they have very little influence because of a domineering principal. The pain causes them to take the kind of action that reduces the principal's influence by organizing, through a union, to take authority into their own hands. While that may reduce the immediate pain of being under the principal's influence, it may not result in the long run in an educationally sound program because the principal's resources are cut out of the interaction from then on.

DR. LIPPITT: Yes, that's a good example.

DR. FOX: Let's try to summarize. What are some of the value issues we've identified that a staff might need to look at in deciding what is a good school climate for them?

DR. LIPPITT: Well, we wondered about teacher happiness as a valid criterion. We suggested the value of trust and mutual support for each other, and the idea that a good climate may make it possible for teachers to hold a variety of value positions.

DR. GIRAULT: We've suggested the possibility that teachers see themselves as influential in a good climate. We wondered whether teachers valued the opportunity for supportive all-around social relationships or a strictly "professional" relationship.

DR. FOX: Then we tried to look at some of the ways in which a staff might move toward action in implementing some of their valued climate goals. We called attention to the importance of getting out a wide variet of alternatives before trying to select one for action.

DR. LIPPITT: And we suggested that looking at feasibility, first, might not be productive, nor would responding to the symptom giving the most pain. Longer range, more substantive objectives might be more satisfying in the long run.

Continuation of Discussion about Values

Participants should now return to their list of what describes a "good" or "bad" climate. Keeping in mind what they have just heard on tape, they can begin to think about describing a desirable climate, evaluating factors that cause problems, and determine what things they might want to change in a school that would improve its climate.

Sub-groups--Generating Action Alternatives

The Leader might introduce the following activity by saying to participants: "We have now looked at various aspects of climate in School A and School B. We have seen some of these climate factors compared with those in other buildings. We have considered what might cause the climate to be as it is in both buildings, and have made some decisions about what is a "good" or "bad" climate. Now let us assume we are consultants to School A and School B who are about to make recommendations to these two schools on what they might change to improve their professional climate. We would want to determine what alternatives for action there are that would bring about the most positive changes in either of these two schools."

It is suggested that the Leader divide the group into several committees or sub-groups, each to come up with their own recommendations to School A and School B which they will share with the total group at the close of the activity. Possibly the same groups who worked together during the data search might work together again on this issue. While making the search for data, each of these sub-groups approached the data with one particular aspect of climate in mind. This same approach might be useful when thinking about what needs to be changed in School A and School B.

The Leader might ask each group to come up with one or several recommendations to these schools which may include gathering further data if not enough information was felt to have been available in the Data Bank, forming committees to work on problems, asking for outside consultant work, etc., along with identifying for these two schools what areas of climate they as consultants feel need changing. When the several committees have generated their lists of alternatives, they will be ready for sharing their ideas with the total group.

Sharing and Discussion of Action Alternatives

This will be a brief period to allow for activities they might encounter during the problem-solving phase. Participants would go through a series of events that would help them identify a problem in their own school, and through the use of a diagnostic tools kit and other experiences and materials provided, learn how to gather data and recommend changes for their own climate.

Completion of Evaluation Form

The Leader might ask participants to fill out the following questions and return them before the end of this session. This will not only enable the Leader to assess reactions to the total experience in the Simulation and Data Bank phase, but to also get some idea of what the attitudes are for continuing with the Problem-Solving phase, each sub-group to report its decision and enable the whole group to discuss the various alternatives recommended.

Summary and Evaluation

This brings us to the close of the last session for the Simulation and Data Bank phase of this program. The Leader might now open up a discussion for participants' reactions to their experience during the past 5 sessions and begin them thinking about the possibilities for continuing with Part II, the Problem-Solving phase. Some possible issues to raise during this discussion would be what participants feel they have gained from this experience, how what they have discovered could relate to their working on problems in their own school, and what is their readiness to continue with the problem-solving phase of this program.

The Leader might refer to the Figure III on page 8 in the Introduction to this manual to acquaint participants with the flow.

Evaluation Questions

Please circle the digit that applies to you.

1. I have found this experience during Sessions I-V very useful and rewarding.

1	2	3	4	5
Quite true		I am in between		Not true at all

2. To what extent were you confused or in doubt about the goals of the program in which you have participated?

1	2	3	4	5
Very confused		Somewhat confused		Not confused at all

3. Are you interested in continuing with the problem-solving phase of this program?

Circle one; Yes No

4. Do you have any ideas about what areas of climate you might like to work on in your own school? If so, what are they?

5. Any comments.